DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 187 087 FL 011 030

AUTHOR Haskell, John F., Ed.
TITLE TESOL Newsletter: Articles from Volume X (Numbers 1-5).
INSTITUTION Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
PUB DATE 76
NOTE 56p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Students; Applied Linguistics; Audiovisual Aids; Communicative Competence (Languages); Educational Opportunities; Educational Testing; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Equal Education; Foreign Students; Immigrants; *Instructional Materials; Public Speaking; Reading Materials; *Second Language Instruction; Speech Skills; Student Characteristics; Teacher Developed Materials; *Teaching Methods; Writing Instruction

ABSTRACT

Three volumes of the "TESOL Newsletter" from 1976 and November 1975 present articles on different aspects of teaching English as a second language. Many of the articles discuss teaching techniques, including: (1) a discussion of teaching written English through sector analysis, (2) a description of a counseling-learning model for second language learning, (3) a reference list for teaching grammatical structures in situational contexts, (4) ideas for increasing communicative competence of ESL students, (5) a discussion of improving teacher-made language tapes, (6) a discussion of public speaking in the ESL classroom, and (7) a consideration of the "Silent Way" approach to language teaching. Other articles discuss student needs, and the results of a survey that clarifies characteristics of ESL students are presented. Testing is discussed in articles on: (1) the use of the Cloze test to select reading material, and (2) testing adult immigrants in open enrollment programs. Other articles include a description of the Family Language Problem of John Jay High School in Park Slope and reflections in applied linguistics. (NCR)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED187087

TESOL Newsletter: Articles from Volume X

(Numbers 1-5) 1976

Edited by John F. Haskell

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

John F. Haskell

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

FL011030

TESOL Newsletter: Articles from Volume X (Numbers 1-5) 1976.

Edited by John F. Haskell

I. General Information and Bibliography.

Alatis, James. "Alatis on Acronyms: Part II." Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

O'Keefe, Josefina Vargas. "An Annotated Bibliography on ESL at the Elementary Level." (reprinted from the WATESOL Newsletter, Vol. II, No. 2, November 1978). Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

II. Current Issues/State of the Art.

Allen, Harold B., et al. "Messages from the Presidents" (of TESOL 1967-1976), Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

Buckingham, Thomas and John Haskell. "Is ESL Appropriate" Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Haskell, John, et al. "Teaching English as an Alien Language." Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Miller, J. Virgil. "Reflections on Applied Linguistics." (reprinted from ELI Monthly, No. 9, February 1976) Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Coleman, Bruce. "Updating a Stereotype." Vol. X, No. 4, September 1976.

III. Bilingual/Bicultural Education and SESD.

Wiener, Allen. "Bilingual Education: for the Melting Pot or for a New American Pluralism." (reprinted from IDIOM, Vol. III, No. 2, September 1973). Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

Urban, Maria L. "Are We Meeting the Needs of Foreign Students?" Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Hartsough, Carletta. "ESL and ESD, Some Similarities and Differences." (reprinted from the CATESOL Newsletter, Vol. VII, No. 3, November 1975) Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

IV. Methods and Classroom Practices.

A. Programs and Methodologies.

Sloane, David E. and Eleanor Frörup. "Teaching Written English Through Sector Analysis." Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Rardin, Jenny. "A Counseling-Learning Model for Second Language Learning." Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Raferty, Thomas. "English the Family Way." (reprinted from the New York Sunday News, November 9, 1975) Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Haskell, John F. "The Silent Way." Vol. X, No. 3, June, 1976.

B. Linguistics and Grammar.

Griffin, Suzanne. "Teaching Grammatical Structure in Situational Contexts." (reprinted from CATESOL Newsletter, Vol. VII, No. 4, January 1976) Vol. X, No. 2, June, 1976.

Larson, Darlene, "It Works: Idioms and Auxiliaries." Vol. X, No. 5, November-December 1976.

C. Classroom Materials and Techniques.

Larson, Darlene. "From Repetition to Reality: Some Reasonable Steps." Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

Thiess, Sharon. "An Idea That Works: The Senses." Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

Larson, Darlene. "It Works: One Lump or Two." Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Dickerson, Wayne B. "Improving Teacher-Made Language Tapes." Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Raney, George W. "Using the National Observer in the ESL Classroom" Vol. X, No. 2, April 1976.

Smallwood, Betty Ansin. "Public Speaking in the ESL Classroom" Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Czarnecki, Karen E. "Cattle Crossing (Using Signs in the ESL Class." Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Larson, Darlene. "It Works: Soap Opera, Murder Mystery and Home Town Lore." Vol. X, No. 3, June 1976.

Larson, Darlene. "It Works: A New Theme on an Old Angle." Vol. X, No. 4, September 1976.

Waffe, Lee. "Using Music to Teach English." Vol. X, No. 5, November-December 1976.

Osman, Alice H. and Laurie Wellman. "Music and ESL." Vol. X, No. 5, November-December 1976.

Ritchie, Colin. "Do We Want Visual Aids." (reprinted from the ELI Monthly, No. 8, January 1976) Vol. X, No. 5, November-December 1976.

D. Testing and Evaluation.

Haskell, John F. "Using Cloze to Select Reading Material." Vol. X, No. 1, February 1976.

Ilyin, Donna. "Testing Adult Immigrants in Open Enrollment Programs." Vol. X, No. 5, November-December 1976.

ALATIS ON ACRONYMS: PART II

by James Alatis, Executive Secretary, TESOL

Note: This is part two of an article excerpted from a speech by Jim Alatis before various TESOL Affiliate meetings. This part is on linguistics, TESOL, bilingualism, bilingual and bicultural education and SESOLD. It is a history of the ESL profession in the U.S. It is about national TESOL, its past history, present status, and future prospects and of the relationship between national TESOL and its affiliates and individual members. In Part I Dr. Alatis discussed the acronyms which are so much a part of Washington, Education, and English; ESL, EFL, TESOL, etc. This part begins where Part I left off.

In order to combine the concepts of TEFL and TESL, we came up with yet another acronym: TESOL, which stands both for the organization and for the profession that it represents. While we were going through the throes of deciding what to call this thing, one clever wag thought that we should call it Teachers of English for Linguists of Other Nations; TEFLON. Punch line: it never sticks!

Pronunciation

It is not surprising, nor should it be, that, in a group that has to do with language and language variation, there should be a division of opinion as to prounciation. There are those who say /tiysol/ and those who say /tesol/. I insist it's the former and I claim to have the support of open and checked syllables in the historical development of the phonology of the English language and even "low level transformational rules" to support me. But more importantly, I rely upon usage, and since I talk more than most people do, MY usage is going to be the right usage, of course! Ed Anthony suggests that we should pronounce it T, as in *beret;* E, as in *make;* S, as in *island;* O, as in *people;* and L, as in *should.*

Professionalism

But the beginnings of professionalism really go back to shortly after the Second World War when large numbers of foreign students began to come to the U.S. William Moulton of Princeton, in an article that he wrote on the trends in linguistics, has suggested that there were two things that distinguished the early days in ESL in this country. One, that it was concerned largely with foreign students of the TEFL type, and second, that it was in the hands, even from the beginning, of trained linguists. The interconnection between linguistics and TEFL is a very important distinction. It's the thing that has actually contributed to our great professionalism. Another distinction, or fact, is that, from the beginning, we've always had one problem in this field and that is that we've never had enough qualified people, never had enough qualified personnel. And I want to emphasize this because I want to attack as vigorously as I can, the notion, right now, that the mere fact of having learned English at your mother's lap, does not necessarily thereby make you a specialist or qualify you to teach English as a second language any more than having learned Spanish at home qualifies you to teach Spanish. That anybody off of the street can be picked up and put into the classroom and expected to teach ESL is preposterous. It does us a great disservice and it ruins a lot of kids because these people don't have the kind of attitude and the kind of understanding, to say nothing of the skills and knowledge, that is required to teach children effectively.

L.A.P.S.E.

I really like acronyms, so I created yet another one: it's my LAPSE acronym: L-A-P-S-E. It has nothing to do with linguistic lapse, nor slips of the tongue, or *lapsus linguae*, or such phenomena as those. I leave that to our linguist friends to handle. It's a mnemonic device that I use when people ask me "What is it you think every TEFL/TESL ought to know? or do? or have? be trained in? the courses that he should take?" Of course, I don't mean this to be merely course-counting or credit counting. I mean the kinds of courses, the kind of knowledge that can be amassed which qualify a person.

The L in my acronym stands for LINGUISTICS. The kinds of knowledge that one gets if he is exposed to a course in introduction to general linguistics. The thing that's important about this is not so much individual facts as the attitudes towards language, toward linguistic change, the distinction between speech and writing, the acceptance of all languages, all cultures and all dialects as important and worthy of study in and of themselves.

I have an L sub 2. L sub 2 stands for language itself, and that is the foreign language, the language of the student: no TEFL, TESL, TESOL, TEFLON, really does a good job unless he himself has been exposed frequently in a formal way to the study of a foreign language. He'll never appreciate the problems of his students!

The A in my acronym stands for ANTHROPOLOGY. I've already alluded to the anthropological approach of early linguists. I refer here to the notion of cultural anthropology and the notion of cultural relativity, the understanding that other peoples' cultures are good, too, that there are different learning styles that people have that one must take into account as he goes through the procedure of teaching them anything.

The P in my acronym stands for PSYCHOLOGY, and more, PSYCHOLINGUISTICS. The psycholinguist is one who applies the knowledge from the science of psychology and combines it with knowledge about language and linguistics toward understanding the problems of language acquisition.

The S stands for SOCIOLOGY or SOCIOLINGUISTICS and that has to do with the notion of social, regional, functional varieties of the language which, at least domestically, refers to such varieties as "Black" English or the English of Appalachian whites. But that's not the exclusive use, of course. It also refers to language variety, to linguistic diversity, in India, Africa, and all over the world. It has to do with the "pure" vs. "not so pure" languages such as the puristic language of modern Greek vs. the more popular one, the various dialects, so called, of Arabic, and so on.

The E stands for EDUCATION, which I equate with Pedagogy. And the kinds of things that are involved here are the things that one learns in the methodology classes that we give. It includes methods and materials, theory and practice, practice teaching, demonstration, observation, shock language, the exposure to language lab-

Continued on Next Page

Continued from Page 21

oratory and technology. But it also has to do with educational measurement, testing, and evaluation.

I have a sub 2 for E also. It stands for ENGLISH, and after all, that's what we're talking about, the language itself. And I talk here about the history and development of the English language and its literature, about English structure morphology and syntax, and phonology. And corresponding to these, I equate, in a program that's going to be bilingually oriented, their counterparts, the history of the Spanish language, Spanish structure, morphology and syntax. So, I am assuming when I talk about TESOL, when we talk about a person who is qualified in this field, we are talking about a person who has had this kind of either formal training or who has acquired this kind of knowledge on his own through experience.

Finding a Home

The other thing that has distinguished this profession, as the years have gone on, is that it has been, right from the beginning, interdisciplinary. No one of the existing professional organizations could cover us. The Linguistic Society of America was not particularly concerned with things practical and things having to do with teaching. The NCTE was more concerned with teaching English as a native language. NAFSA did give us a home for awhile but we were a little section. No professional journal, no newsletter, no conference of our own. The MLA, the Modern Language Association, was for foreign language teachers, and the Center for Applied Linguistics was not a membership organization. The American Speech Association was more concerned with pathological aspects of speech production and often even labeled the kinds of things that we are interested in as pathological or physiological, to the great denigration of everything that we have to say. Hence, we have the new organization: TESOL. It was 1966 when we became a roving organization. For three years we were an ad hoc conference; we had three ad hoc conferences, one in Tucson, then San Diego, and then in New York; and in New York we adopted a set of by-laws, elected officers, and became an organization. But the organization has grown, according to the needs of the nation. EFL, of course, is not only on the university level, but on the adult basic education level. And, of course, there is bilingual education and bilingual-bicultural education, with which we have been concerned right from the beginning. You can see in our organization development through our quarterlies, through our newsletters, through our convention programs. And then of course, there's SESOLD, Standard English to Speakers of Other Languages or Dialects.

Bilingualism

I want now, though, to get back to this business of bilingualism because it's an important matter: TESOL and bilingualism. With the recent resurgence in governmental interest and activity in bilingual education, I often get asked, "Does TESOL have a role in bilingual education?" and my answer, of course, is "Sure." TESOL has always had a role in bilingual education, whether by TESOL we mean simply the discipline of teaching English to speakers of other languages or the professional organization from whose name the acronym derives. TESOL involves, almost by definition, bilingual education, certainly *one part* of bilingual education (*bi*lingual, after all means two languages) and a very important part. We are, after all, teachers of speakers of other languages. And in the very name of the organization there is recognition of the fact that there are two languages involved. Some people consider the two terms synonymous. Mary Finocciaro, in an article in the TESOL Quarterly, has said that the two desired terminal objectives of TESOL courses are bilingualism and biculturalism.

Now whether, in fact, bilingualism and ESOL are the same can probably be debated. One thing, however, is certain, and that is that the two cannot be separated. Any bilingual education program in the United States must include an effective ESOL component. I don't see how we can escape that. Conversely, any ESOL program that ignores the children's first language is likely to be ineffective. ESOL provides a strategy for teaching standard English to children for whom there is a language barrier to education within the school system. Bilingual education encourages the provision of a transitional or maintained education also in the child's language. This maintenance of the mother tongue, in fact, has *never, never* been discouraged by specialists in the field of English as a second language of the kind that I described to you earlier. Indeed, it is my thesis, that TESOL and bilingual education, if not absolutely synonymous, are certainly and thoroughly compatible.

However, there is an unfortunate polarization which seems to be developing between teachers of English to speakers of other languages and our bilingual-education colleagues. The argument, and it has been published in some rather august journals and books, goes something like this: People will say, "it is greatly inconceivable that a person becoming a bilingual with a high degree of proficiency in two languages will fail to absorb any of the *culture* of his second language. However, it must be noted that any METHOD of teaching a second language that stresses only skills, e.g., the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages, (TESOL), is not going to produce a bicultural individual." Or, "when the TESOL movement came into prominence, many people were hopeful that this would alleviate the problem of underachievement. . ." *What these people don't understand is that TESOL is not a method, nor a movement.* It is not a method, any more than linguistic analysis was a method. Linguistics and linguistic analysis told people what *ought* to be taught but it was *never* a METHOD. TESOL is, as I defined it above, either the *field* or *the professional organization.*

The argument often goes as follows: a particular ethnic group will say, "in the beginning you did nothing for us. Then there was the next stage, you did nothing first, and you ignored us and the next thing you did is, to say that people didn't know English, and decided that you have to teach them properly. An the *method* of teaching them English was called TESOL. And it's a *method* and it comes out of Miami, and (it's linguistics)." Then there needs to be an advance over that because that ignores the peoples' languages and so the next stage is bilingual education. So that's next, and that's another method that comes out of somewhere else, maybe Texas. Then there's an even *higher* stage and that's bicultural education or bilingual-bicultural. I don't know what the next method is—they tell me now in the sequence that bilingual education is out. It's bilingual-bicultural education, that's the new *method,* you see, and that's going to supplant what came before that. I don't know what the next one will be. But each one of these gets named and labeled and considered a METHOD; and so TESOL in that ladder, in that progression, is considered the thing that preceded bilingual education. Now it's out of date. It has to be replaced by the next thing which is bilingual-bicultural; and so on and so on and so on.

Continued on Next Page

Continued from Page 22

Misconception

The next article, that I was reading to you from, attacks the TESOL "*method*" because that was teaching English without regard to the language of the learner. This is all wrong; it's simplistic, it's confusing, it's abysmally ignorant, it's pernicious, it's malicious, it's insidious, and it creates a mischievious polarization that doesn't help any of us. TESOL is bad; bilingualism is good. I heard a person who I know believes the way that you and I do quoted in a newspaper saying, Madame Chatagnier just announced in a newspaper that bilingualism is bad. "Elaine! What are they saying about you, Elaine?" I asked, "Now they just said that you don't believe in bilingualism!" Well, it depends on how you define it. Bilingualism in Canada, and this is the place that this was taking place, had to do with a piece of legislation which said that every civil servant, in order to keep his job, and these people had been in their jobs maybe 20, 30 years, you see, has to now learn a foreign language. If he was French-speaking, he had to learn English; if he was English-speaking, then he had to learn French, otherwise he'd lose his job. Now bilingualism so defined *is* bad, is *evil*! That's what Elaine Chatagnier said and meant when she said bilingualism was bad. It come out in a newspaper, "Mme. Chatagnier says bilingualism is bad." So, if we're not careful about our definitions, we're all going to be bad. And we've got to keep these lines straight and keep the people who make our laws and implement them, and interpret them, straight in their thinking.

I am determined to dispell some of these misconceptions that tend to polarize us. We must not lose sight of the fact that among the main characteristics of teaching English as a second language in this country has been the fact that, as I've said above, this field has, from its inception, been inextricably intertwined with the field of linguistics. It is natural, therefore, that following our friends, the linguist, we in the field of English as a second language have placed great importance on the primacy of language—and on spoken language at that! We must remember that the first linguists were also anthropologists and that they were also interested in the culture of any language that they might be studying. Further, the linguists contributed to our view of language, their SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE, which insisted upon the objective observation of the facts of language and began by dispelling the myths, the misconceptions, the prejudices about language which have often been used by bigoted people who were in important positions and used these things, their prejudices, to assert their superiority over those less fortunate than themselves. And frequently those less fortunate ones were children. And I've seen some things that would make your hair stand on end, on our Navaho reservations where you have people who are *not* TEFL/TESL people, who don't know about the LAPSE acronym and who absolutely suppress and oppress these little children. The only thing that they have going for them is that they learned English as a native language and they are, therefore, good, and the kids are evil, and the kids are dumb because they won't look up at their teachers. You see, they know nothing about the culture of these kids, what makes them look up or down. It's *respect* on the part of these kids, you see. Oh no, they're stupid. It's only an anglo-saxon idea that it's good to look people in the eyes. And the same kind of thing that was happening down in Miami for a long time; the notion that there is, this kid; he obviously doesn't know the language, and so he's obviously (mentally retarded) and you put him in a retarded class. Well, that kind of thing is the thing that we, with the proper orientation about language, of the kind that the linguists would give us, would do without, would try to eliminate not his language or culture or self-image.

As I say, all languages are worthy of study in and of themselves and each language is specifically suited to carry on the business of the culture of whose vehicle of communication it is.

English as an Additive

In view of statements made by Charles Fries, one of our acknowledged leaders, it's somewhat surprising to hear some of our colleagues in our overall field of language and education accuse teachers of English as a second language of "linguistic imperialism," and "cultural aggressiveness." We've been that route. We got it when we were teaching English abroad. These accusations are simply not well-founded. Taking the lead from their friends the linguists, teachers of English as a second language have always held an additive philosophy rather than a replacive philosophy when they have taught English as a second language or a second dialect. That is, they have attempted to add a new register of language to a student's repertoire rather than eradicate or replace the register which he already possesses. They have hoped to impart to their students the ability to switch codes instinctively, so as to use that language or that dialect which is most appropriate to and which evokes the greatest amount of cooperation and the least amount of resistance in a given situation.

Teachers of English as a second language have also been accused of going about their work in a mechanical and unfeeling manner. They're accused of over-emphasizing drills, mimicry, and memorization to the denigration of the cultural, literary, and humanistic aspects of the language they were teaching or to the exclusion of considerations of student motivation and aptitude. This criticism too, is unfair and ill-founded. I believe that the people who make unfound accusations against the TESOL profession have not read any of Fries' (writings) to begin with, which are now kind of old, nor the work or any articles of recent leaders in ESL, let alone the TESOL Guidelines, and do not know the first thing about TESOL. There may be, indeed, a handful of people who teach ESOL and who are in fact, perpetrating the kind of abuses that the whole profession has been accused of. But these people are not the qualified, the trained, experienced, and dedicated, TESOL experts whom the profession recognizes as leaders in the field. To be a qualified member of the TESOL profession requires a considerable amount of rigorous and highly specialized preparation and experience, (of the kind) of which we spoke and are exemplified in the Guidelines and summarized in the LAPSE acronym. The TESOL Guidelines show that ESL and bilingual-bicultural education are thoroughly compatible. The ESL portion is an essential component of any good bilingual program. The mother tongue and culture are equally essential. What we need is more cooperation between and coalition of TESOLs and specialists in bilingual education who would work together toward a common purpose. And that is to help the thousands of students throughout the U.S. to reach their full potential as citizens of our increasingly complex and troubled society. Such cooperation will contribute to the solution of our most pressing national problem, the problems of our poverty-stricken minorities and the urban ghettos about which the government keeps talking about. We must emphasize *professional* competance and *professional* standards and exert, *educational* pressure as opposed to political pressures and polarizations which are so deversive and hence destructive.

JN Vol X No. 2 April 1976

Reprinted from the *WATESOL Newsletter* Vol. 6, No. 2, Nov. 75

An Annotated Bibliography On ESL At The Elementary Level

By Josefina Vargas O'Keefe

Reading on the elementary level is all too often ignored in the field of English as a second language. At the October WATESOL workshop on reading it was suggested that this particular skill area get more recognition within the organization. Josefina Vargas O'Keefe, Head, ESEA—Title I ESOL Program working at the Key School in Arlington, Virginia has offered to share her annotated bibliography of reading texts and materials that she has used in her teaching of reading on the elementary level. These same materials have also been used with native speakers in elementary reading programs. Publishers' addresses as well as order numbers are included.

1. *Motivator Activity Card Kits* (Singer: SVE—Society for Visual Education, Inc. 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Illinois 60614)

Initial Consonants - No. 1005
Final Consonants - No. 1006
Long Vowels - No. 1007
Short Vowels - No. 1008
Consonant Blends Bingo - No. 1011
Consonant Digraphs - No. 1012

I found these kits very useful for beginning students of English with very limited proficiency. It is also most helpful to students who have some English but need reinforcement in correct pronunciation, in simple spelling, and vocabulary. Students in groups of two to eight can use the kit by themselves in the regular classroom with the guidance of a reliable "buddy" as a volunteer aide, or a teacher. Included in the above list are kits that proved helpful to Spanish-speaking students. They are attractive in color and erasable with tissue paper.

2. *The Reading Helpers: Levels Two through Seven* by Gloria Orlick (The Book-Lab, Inc. 1449 - 37th St., Brooklyn, New York 11218)

Level 2 - No. 2120 Level 5 - No. 2150
Level 3 - No. 2130 Level 6 - No. 2160
Level 4 - No. 2140 Level 7 - No. 2170

Most useful for classroom teachers of non-English-speaking students with varying levels of proficiency. Conceptual in approach, each lesson teaches basic skills incrementally. A "buddy" or aide can use this easily because there are explicit directions for both the teacher and pupil on the left hand page. Each exercise can be detached and duplicated on dittoes for classwork or homework. Used originally in New York for Puerto Rican students and second dialect students.

3. *Welcome to English* by Thomas Lismore - Revised Edition, 1974 (Regents Publishing Co., Inc. Two Park Ave., New York, New York 10016)

Level 1 - No. 18073 Level 4 - No. 18076
Level 2 - No. 18074 Level 5 - No. 18077
Level 3 - No. 18075

Useful to the student who is taking ESOL classes. He can take the book home for review and reinforcement of grammatical structures and vocabulary already learned. Attractively illustrated, it provides the student with help in reading and writing comprehension.

4. *The Miami Linguistic Readers: ESL - The First and Second Level Program* twenty-one separate student books and twenty-one separate workbooks (D. C. Heath and Co., P.O. Box 3172, Richmond, Virginia 23205)
Specially designed for Spanish speakers. Field-tested in Florida and California. Starting one step before the usual reading program, it helps students gain oral/aural mastery of the materials they are expected to read in the regular reading program. It also provides new grammatical patterns and handwriting practice. I found this to be very useful to the Spanish-speaking and Korean students because it concentrates on overcoming the phonological and morphological problems encountered by a majority of these students. The story contents are of interest to varying age levels and are of multi-ethnic orientations.

5. *Bill Martin Reading Series:* published by Scott Foresman and Company
For students of varying proficiency levels and for different age levels containing books of different topics and interesting to all ages. An important feature is reading with rhythmic and musical accompaniment. Can be used as a short listening activity as well. There is plenty of vocabulary and grammatical reinforcement. Fifty books with cassette tapes. I found these books very popular among elementary children aged six through twelve; can be used as individual or group work to culminate a TESOL lesson or language arts lesson.

6. *Bowmar, Inc.*
Thirty books and records are in this set. For elementary grades, but can be used with junior high students. Small, handy books with records in the back pockets. The readings accompanied with music, plus rhymes and poems for supplementary activities. Can be used for short listening activity. About ten of the books are also in a Spanish edition. Popular with kindergarten through third grades.

7. *English Around the World* published by Scott Foresman
Used to supplement the *Bowmar* books and records. Series includes flash cards, tapes, records, reading cards, posters, a teacher's manual, student books, workbooks, practice pads and test pads. Can be used for junior and senior high students as well as elementary students, depending on the proficiency levels. The posters and flash cards are quite useful, particularly for the teacher who has no time to develop and collect visual aids. The visual materials have been chosen to develop conceptual skills as well as English language skills. However, this is a huge series and one must pick and choose what would work in a particular program.

8. *Learning Basic Skills Through Music* by Hap Palmer (Educational Activities, Inc., Freeport, New York 11520)
A collection of original and simple game songs and rhythmic movement activities on phonograph records for children in elementary grades. Both fun and educational. Designed for use with Head Start and special education programs, but particularly effective with ESOL young children. Topics include sizes, colors, foods, home activities, etc. I found these records very useful in reinforcement of vocabulary and grammar by means of musical and manipulative activities.

9. *Capitalization and Punctuation: Programs for Individualized Instruction, A, B, C* by Richard Boning (Barnell Loft, Ltd. 958 Church Street, Baldwin, New York 11510)
I have used these materials with ten and twelve year olds who have been in the United States for a year or so and who need help in the basic mechanics of writing and spelling. The exercises develop the writing comprehension skills in an incremental way. An important feature is a self-testing exercise at the end of each lesson.

10. *The First Talking Story Book; The Second Talking Book* published by Scott Foresman
Excellent stories for listening and reading. I use both stories in our "TESOL Library" in the ESOL classrooms. Each series contains twenty-one lively, interesting stories: folk tales of various countries, popular stories of topics of interest for elemen-

Continued on page 16

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Continued from page 15

tary school children. Attractive illustrations in color; each book with a 33-1/3 record in the back pocket. Giant "library" cards which show all the titles of the books in the series and space for the child to check his reading accompany each series. TESOL students of varying levels of proficiency can profit from this material. Those students of extremely limited proficiency can listen to the teacher or an aide as the story is being read, or if he can decode and understand to some degree, he can listen and follow the story on the printed page.

Johanna Guccione from the Prince Georges' County Public Schools also suggests *The Jacaranda Individualized Language Arts Program for ESL* in the elementary level. [See ad in this issue.]

TESOL NEWSLETTER

A Professional Organization for Those Concerned with the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language and of Standard English as a Second Dialect

Vol. X No. 1 | Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages | February 1976

Messages From the Presidents

In setting up this first issue of our Tenth year as a professional organization we asked the past, present, and next presidents to comment, if they would, on two questions which seem to be asked quite often of late to and by members of our organization. The questions were; What is to be our professional position in the seeming conflict between ESL and bilingual/bicultural education? and, Given the present criticism of many of the audiolingual techniques, what should teachers do? The following are the responses which we received. Note that President Galvan covered both of these questions in the last issue of the Newsletter and that Dr. Alatis discusses them in this issue in Part II of his article. The Editor.

Harold B. Allen
President 1966–67

When Gilbert Phelps wrote on "English Idiom and English Culture in *English Language Teaching* in January, 1949, he, like other teachers of English in non-English-speaking countries, was well aware that ESL does not proceed in a cultural vacuum. In the March, 1950, issue of the same journal A. V. P. Elliott said (p. 164): "One of the greatest benefits to be gained from the study of a foreign language, if it is propertly taught, is some imaginative insight into the way of life of the people who speak it." He then explained that "properly taught" means "taught so as to relate the language to the life and activity of its speakers."

When Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* appeared in 1957, it performed a great service to the profession, not by a sudden revelation of unsuspected truth but by its overt and detailed expression of what experienced teachers had known right along —that good teaching of a language calls for teaching its culture at the same time. Indeed, in the foreign field it often was not the teacher at fault when culture was neglected; it was more likely to be governmental policy. When preparing textbooks in Egypt twenty years ago I recall being told by ministry officials that to be used in the schools the textbooks must describe Egyptian life in English, not life in the United States or England.

In this country social and political developments have quite recently put extraordinary emphasis upon what might be called the cultural element of ESL teaching. Understandably, in a situation where the foreign language is spoken within the general American cultural area, this emphasis is necessary. It is also understandable that with this sudden expansion of concern there should appear on the scene a great many Johnny-come-latelies whooping it up for what has become known as bilingual education. With

Continued on Page 4

Continued from Page 1

many of them I am most sympathetic —with those of the non-English culture who feel that at last their rich cultural identity is being recognized. I am much less sympathetic with others, as in the fields of education and government, who have simply found a nice new bandwagon for personal aggrandizement and who retain the myth that anyone who speaks English can teach English.

I am not bad-mouthing the Johnny-come-latelies. We need their drive and enthusiasm. But all Johnny-come-latelies, no matter how worthy their cause, have an obligation to find out what has gone on before them—in this case, to learn something of the history of ESL and what ESL actually is as a professional discipline. That historical background would reveal to them that any confrontation or split between bilingual education and TESL is specious, and that it can be maintained only out of persistent naivete.

TESOL at this time has an organizational responsibility, and its members have a personal responsibility, to publicize in every way, with special concern for reaching key persons in politics and education, the simple fact that teaching English as a second or foreign language is a professional discipline that by very definition of language incorporates the teaching of the second culture as well as the second language. Let it be known that TESOL has the larger, the all-embracing, circle. We are all in this cause together.

But I am perhaps more concerned about another recent development, this time a negative one—the failure of the past two national administrations to carry on with adequate support for our ESL responsibilities and opportunities in other countries. The decline in legislative appropriations is particularly shameful at a time when billions of dollars are going to the military but when the overseas demand for English has expanded immeasurably. Here, too, TESOL has an obligation—to see that members of the relevant house and senate committees become aware not only that TESL is a professional discipline calling for professional preparation, not only that federal support for our long-established English-teaching programs has either diminished or disappeared, but especially that the renewal of these programs on a massive scale is a better contribution to international amity than whatever military hardware could be bought for an equivalent expenditure. I propose that officially TESOL mount a powerful information campaign to reach members of the several congressional committees on education and foreign affairs. We are not going to get what is needed by bewailing the situation and sitting on our hands.

Mary Finocchiaro
President 1970–71

Your two seemingly simple questions would warrant pages of discussion. Any educational issue, including as it does the interaction of an indefinite variety of learners, teachers, schools and communities can never have an "either-or" answer. When, in addition, political or other forces distort the realities of the learning situation without sufficient regard for each pupil's present and future welfare, the answer becomes even more complex.

Let us look at your question re. bilingual-bicultural education. It seems to me that in order to arrive at viable answers, we must:

1. Seek a more exact definition of the terms "bilingual" and "bicultural". For whom is the program intended? What are its developmental and terminal objectives? The fact of having a Spanish or Italian surname or a brown or black skin does not mean that the pupil does not already know standard English. Moreover, we should raise our sights in any discussion of bilingual education. Schools should enable *all* students to learn one or more foreign languages and to appreciate not only their native culture and *one* other culture, but a plurality of cultures.

2. Obtain a more specific knowledge of the points on the continuum of native and second language skills on which each learner may be at any particular moment. Oral and/or written tests should be prepared in a variety of languages for learners of different age levels.

3. Consider diverse objectives, curricula, materials, methods, evaluation procedures and teacher skills (e.g., knowledge of the learners' language) which will be affected by the following minimal variables: a) the *age levels* of learners (pre-school, six to nine, ten to twelve, thirteen to sixteen, sixteen and above); b) the types of *classroom organization* available in the community for language learners; c) the *number of language learners* in the program; d) the *variety of language and cultural backgrounds* represented; e.g., does the native language have a written form?; e) the degree of the learner's *literacy in the mother tongue;* e) the *years of schooling* in the native country or in the previous community; f) the *years of schooling* in the present community; g) the *availability of bilingual personnel;* h) the *type of community* in which the school is located; i) the *age of the pupil* at entry into school either in the former or the present community; the *time of his entry* into a class. It should be obvious by now that no easy answer can be forthcoming.

Permit me to make a few comments:

1. Each age level will make different demands on the school and on the community. For example, young children who do not know English should learn concepts in social studies, science and mathematics in their mother tongue for as long as really necessary. They should, however, be programmed for physical education, art, music and recreational activities with English-speaking children from the very first day of school. Instruction in English should take account of the child's social and affective needs and should be based on an interdisciplinary approach. This would make it possible for him or her to be placed in classes with native English speakers of the same age group as quickly as feasible. (Daily, informal evaluation would help determine when learners are ready to enter "transition" or "regular" classes.)

Older students who may never have been to school or those above sixteen who have particular interests or aspirations will need a special curriculum taught by especially trained teachers. Departments of Education or appropriate organizations working in cooperation with classroom teachers should provide individual study kits for these students.

2. The entire school and community—pupils, teachers, parents, members—should be helped to develop feelings of mutual acceptance and cooperation.

3. Very frankly, having lived through it as a non-English speaking child of immigrants, I dread the thought that measures being advocated by some people today will plunge us into segregated schooling. I and other teachers and supervisors have been fighting segregation since 1940 because we became painfully aware of two major facts: a) It is very comfortable for some teachers and administrators to protest that pupils with minor linguistic problems are not yet "ready" to enter the mainstream of the school; and 2) Retarding the learning of the dominant language of the community makes it extremely difficult for learners to move easily out of a ghetto in

Continued on Next Page

PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES

Continued from Page 4

which they may be living.

4. Above all, therefore, we must provide and enforce safeguards which will enable all students to learn in the way which is best for them (thus reinforcing their hope that they *can* learn); to retain pride in their native language and culture (a wonderful way of doing this is to know that others are learning their language.); to enter the universities of their choice on a level with their peers; and to become participating members of the community *if they so desire.*

With relation to your second question, I'd like to mention some aspects of the audio-lingual method which I would *delete;* e.g., rote memorization of dialogues or model sentences; an overdose of pattern drills for the purpose of "overlearning"; the ban on reading until after a long aural-oral period has elapsed; the ban on keeping the text open as the teacher reads aloud; the ban on verbalizing grammar rules based on teacher or text models; the ban on translation (where such activity would be feasible); the ban on using the student's culture as a point of departure in appropriate teaching presentations.

I would instead like to emphasize the following points, (in addition to the opposites of the above): 1) Both habit formation and cognitive code theories should be used in presentation and practice; 2) The content should include concepts from other school disciplines as well as materials which are relevant to the students themselves because they are related to happenings and places in their community and to their cultural background; 3) Content and methodology should be pragmatic. Moreover they should be modified in harmony with the resources in the community and the students' learning rhythm and styles; 4) Provision should be made for group activities and peer teaching; 5) Linguistic and cultural materials already presented should be consciously reintroduced whenever feasible in more extended contexts and in different socio-cultural situations; 6) Pupils should be helped to recognize and to produce the utterances which speakers need to express the various functions which language serves in real life. The goal should be communicative competence; that is, students should acquire the ability to recognize correct and appropriate language and to use it both correctly and appropriately in the specific socio-cultural situation in which the communication act is taking place; 7) Pupils should be enabled to recognize and to use contextual clues and features of redundancy as well as to anticipate words or structures they are likely to hear and read; that is, they should be helped to internalize a grammar of expectancy; 8) Errors students make should be corrected with common sense and great sensitivity. For example, when students are expressing themselves creatively, errors which do not impede comprehension should be temporarily ignored. 9) Students must be allowed to enjoy many small successes. For example homework assignments should be sampled in class; the content of most tests should be announced in advance; praise should be given whenever possible; students should be encouraged to direct many of the activities in which they will be asked to engage; 10) Tests should measure discrete elements of language for diagnostic purposes but primarily the more motivating integrative skills.

In sum, my dear John, to answer both your questions, teaching should be raised to the level of art. The enthusiastic, emphathetic, concerned, well-prepared teacher cannot help but be a consummate artist.

Russell N. Campbell
President 1971–72

In your letter of December 2, 1975, you suggested that there might be some interest in my opinions on two general questions that are currently uppermost in the minds of the TESOL membership. These questions have to do with TESOL's role in bilingual education and with teachers' modifications of the audio-lingual approach that might be suggested by recent research in second language acquisition.

Although this is not the forum for a lengthy consideration of the role of ESL in the development of bilingual/bicultural education programs for the youths of our country, a couple of notions do occur to me that might be worth including here for future consideration and argument.

In a sense, those of us in ESL/EFL, from times long before the inception of TESOL as a professional organization and before the Bilingual Education Act, have worked toward providing people with an opportunity to become bilingual/bicultural. No ESL scholar that I have ever met has included in his/her curricular plans overt suppression of a learner's native language or culture. On the other hand, it has not been an overriding principle held dear by every ESL scholar that in each situation that ESL has been taught that there should be evidence of 'equal time' for the development or maintenance of the learners' home language and culture. Rather, the ESL scholar has limited his attention to the development of theories of second language teaching and learning that might provide theoretical underpinnings for making decisions in the design and implementation of English language programs. The 'theories' of second language learning have been the subject of constant experimentation over the centuries (L. E. Kelly: Twenty-five Centuries of Language Teaching). In this generation we have modified our collective assumptions (to use Ed. Anthony's term) again and again as we have enlarged our frame of reference to include not only the contributions of Linguistics to our theory building, but of Sociology, Psychology, Anthropology and Education as well. To date the most significant gains that have been made towards a synthesis of knowledge from these disciplines, and the only significant research in developing a viable theory of second language acquisition have come from those scholars who are most closely associated with TESOL.

There is a difference between *bilingualism* and *bilingual education.* The first usually has to do with the *definition* of processes and conditions which result in some degree of linguistic competence in two languages. The latter with the implementation of scholastic programs that are designed to *provide* opportunities for students' acquisition of a second language and the maintenance and normal development of a home language. It seems eminently clear to me that scholarship, past, present and future, that pertains to *bilingualism* carried out by TESOL scholars should be carefully considered by educators who wish to establish *bilingual education* programs. There should be no conflict of interests here.

On the question of recent research, and the implications for modification of courses based upon the audio-lingual approach, two points need to be made at the outset. (1) Classroom teachers are in fact quite capable of grasping the import of the humanization movement suggested by recent research in Second Language Acquisition. (2) Few classroom teachers have ever completely sold their souls to a strict mechanical interpretation of language teaching as some have interpreted the techniques of the A-L method. I dare say that there has been a huge collective sigh of relief as teachers have been informed that

Continued on Next Page

PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES

Continued from Page 5

their concern for the student's self-esteem, his attitudes, his ability to think and reason, his motivation, his patience, his goals, etc., etc., are vital elements in the teaching-learning paradigm; something that they have in some way known all along. Perhaps we should be assured that there is nothing inherently dangerous in the tenents of the audio-lingual approach as they are reflected in our classroom behavior as long as we are sensitive to those characteristics of the learner (and teacher) listed above. For if we are sensitive to them, and respond to them, then, no matter the method, we have a good chance of being successful teachers.

It seems to me that teachers and curriculum developers should not look for new dogma from experts to replace those of the A-L method. They would do very well to trust their intuitions as to the appropriateness of course content and classroom procedures as they relate them to the observed needs and interests of their students.

Al Ramirez
President 1972–73

Before Bilingual/Bicultural Education (B/BE) entered the scene in the late sixties, the only professional organization specializing in the needs of teachers of the non-English speaking was TESOL. As I recall, TESOL went on record in New Orleans, endorsing bilingual education for TESOL students when the concept was not yet in vogue.

Now that B/BE is in full swing and that there are enough practitioners to form another professional organization, we have another club to join. I see it as a natural development in the propagation of the species. Someday there may even be a need for an organization called TETSE—Teachers of English to Speakers of English.

I see no conflict between TESOL and B/BE, and certainly no need for TESOL to be defensive about charges of "inappropriateness." We cannot give all B/BE teachers and administrators what they need. As far as competing for membership, we're not even reaching our potential membership in non-B/BE schools in the country—to say nothing of the thousands of ESL teachers abroad.

I do not feel that TESOL needs to do anything except keep serving its membership in more and better ways. We need to identify exemplary programs in various parts of the country that can be visited by teachers and administrators seeking improvements in their ESL classes.

We need more experimentation in the measurement of progress in language acquisition, particularly in large group testing techniques. Without adequate assessment instruments schools lose valuable time before making necessary changes in methods, materials and personnel.

And finally, I feel that we need to support and encourage continuous development of alternative approaches to second language teaching—especially those employing film or videotape to elicit spoken communication and to make the learning process more stimulating.

Have ten years really gone by! It seems that we just began. That now, at last, we're ready to start rolling and there's so much to be done.

Betty Wallace Robinett
President 1973–74

The attached is my response to your request for statements from former TESOL presidents. I did not really answer your two questions; but I think that if what I have written is correctly interpreted, it *is* an answer to the first question. The answer to your second question is a matter of good teaching in my estimation. Teachers who are vitally interested in students will always consider the affective and cognitive aspects of the learning process and, as a consequence, will tailor their teaching to the class. That is why a good teacher never teaches the same subject in exactly the same way to different groups of students. It is an impossibility to do so if the teacher is sensitive to the needs and the learning problems of students as individuals and as a group.

One of the most important tasks before our profession at this moment is to find a way of ensuring that only qualified persons be appointed to perform ESL tasks. This includes administrators as well as teachers, and applies to every level of education, from kindergarten up to, and including, college and university programs. One way to be sure that ESL positions at the public school level are filled with competent ESL personnel is through certification programs. At the college and university level this insurance can probably be provided through the dissemination of detailed descriptions of what our profession considers appropriately trained staff and adequatly designed programs.

Because of the recent rapid influx of non-English speakers into our various educational systems, the need for qualified teachers has become crucial. However, the only way to be sure that trained ESL persons are hired is by placing the same restrictions on ESL positions as are placed on positions for teachers of reading, social studies, or home economics at the public school level, and for instructors of history, Spanish, or mathematics at the collegiate level. Specific qualifications are needed in the form of degree requirements or certificates, and experience in teaching ESL. This is not asking any more or any less than is required for filling positions in other disciplines.

Members of our profession in states where ESL certification is not yet available should work toward this end. Furthermore, we need to disseminate among institutions of higher learning in our areas information about the qualifications which entitle a person to be considered a legitimate member of the ESL profession.

We have been busy doing just this in Minnesota. Unlikely as it may seem, our cold northland state is one of the five or six in the United States with the largest number of Vietnamese refugees; and we are capitalizing upon the reaction of administrators and teachers, some of whom have, for the first time, become fully aware of the need for qualified ESL personnel. (Obviously the need has been here for some time among other non-English-speaking groups; we are simply grateful that the impact made by this latest group has alerted school personnel and the general public to the need for special attention for these non-English speakers.) Along with representatives from other institutions and agencies in the state, I am personally involved in drawing up ESL certification requirements at the elementary, secondary, and adult education levels. I also take every possible opportunity to disseminate to colleges and universities in our area involved in teaching ESL the following two documents which outline specific qualifications for teachers and for programs in ESL:

"Statement of Qualifications and Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States" by William E. Norris. This statement appears in the TESOL publication *TESOL Training Program Directory 1974–1976*, Charles Blatchford, ed.

"Guidelines for Intensive English Programs" and "Guidelines for Semi-Intensive English Programs" available from ATESL (Association of Teachers of En-

Continued on Page 12

PRESIDENTS' MESSAGES

Continued from Page 6

glish as a Second Language) of NAFSA (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs).

It will require the concerted effort of the individual members of our profession to ensure at all educational levels the placement of qualified ESL personnel and the development of adequate ESL programs.

TESOL NEWSLETTER

A Professional Organization for Those Concerned with the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language and of Standard English as a Second Dialect

Vol. X No. 3 | Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages | June 1976

IS ESL APPROPRIATE?

The Continuing Case of Miscommunication

Thomas Buckingham and
John Haskell

It is a curious and disturbing fact that the Supreme Court's decision in the now famous Lau vs. Nichols case has resulted not in improvement of educational opportunity for the disenfranchised minorities it was intended to help, but in confusion, anger, frustration and continued disappointment. Justice Douglas, writing for the Court, stated ". . . there is no equality of treatment by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education . . . . Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program, he must already have acquired those basic (English) skills is to make a mockery of public education."

Justice Douglas quotes the 1970 HEW guidelines: "Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students."

It is a tragic compounding of injustice that a decision with such well-intentioned goals and such well-defined purpose could result in a continuous backlash of reaction, counter-reaction, misunderstanding, suspicion, defensiveness and confusion which has been characteristic of nearly everything written on or as a result of the Lau decision, over the past year. In all of the accusations and rebuttals which have found their way to print, no one has questioned the rights of the affected minorities, the justice of the law, or the need for action. The locus of the differences on this question appears to be the appropriateness of ESL programs as remedies for the inequalities which the law is intended to rectify.

The reason for the misunderstanding and the resulting cross accusations appears to be in large measure, the result of the publication of the *Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful under Lau v. Nichols.* These were a set of "guidelines" prepared by a task force appointed by the

Continued on page 2

IS ESL APPROPRIATE?

Continued from page 1

Center for Applied Linguistics for the Office of Civil Rights in the summer of 1975. Inherent in this document are the seeds of dissention which have borne such bitter fruit in the ensuing year. The document is very explicit in its conception of what ESL is, stating; "Because an ESL program does not consider the affective nor cognitive development of students in this category (elementary school) and time and maturation variables are different here than for students at the secondary level, an ESL program *is not* appropriate."

This statement, more than anything else in the Remedies exposes the serious misconception of the members of the task force about what ESL is. It states that the end result of BL/BC Programs is students who "can function, totally, in both languages and cultures" without pointing out that the end product of an ESL program is exactly the same and that an ESL program, too, concerns itself with cultural factors in instruction.

Bilingual educators seem to believe that ESL is an "alternative" to a bilingual education program for a bilingual child. They have confused subject matter with a way to organize a curriculum. This is a serious confusion, indeeed. ESL is *not* an approach to education; it is a component of a total educational program. It is a course with a content, like French, or mathematics, or earth science. Like all courses, it has a specified content with concepts and skills to be learned. Bilingual education is *not* a course; it has no content. One doesn't learn Bilingual Education in the way one learns French, for example. BE is an approach to education, a way to organize a total curriculum, much as "the open classroom" or "elective courses" are ways to organize learning so as to present subject matter most effectively to students.

As a course, ESL can be seen in its proper perspective in a Bilingual Education Program. It is a set of skills and concepts organized in such a way as to relate to other components of the program so that the student receives the maximum benefit from his educational opportunity. Even the Remedies, somewhat contradictorily, acknowledge that ESL is an essential component of all BE Programs. The effect of the strong statement on the inappropriateness of ESL, however, has created what amounts, to educational malpractice by eliminating an essential component from some programs and support activities.

That ESL ignores affective goals in teaching is easily disproved. A visit to any current ESL class at any level will more than abundantly illustrate in texts, materials, procedures, and techniques the inclusion of references to the home culture of the students; I have never seen an ESL teacher attempt to denigrate the culture of his students. Furthermore, the first issue of the first volume of the *TESOL Quarterly* carries at least one article emphasizing the importance of the culture of the students—predating the Lau decision by nearly ten years—as have innumerable articles since. Current methodology encourages the use of specific subject matter areas in teaching ESL and is considered pedagogically sound practice.

The latest development in this wrangle is a memorandum issued in April to regional HEW officials which affirms in part that "it is not mandatory for school districts to provide bilingual education to children whose primary language is not English."

Responses to the HEW memorandum were immediate. The *Washington Post* of April 19, 1976 printed the following:

> Washington—The Health, Education and Welfare Department, seeking to clear up a growing U.S. education issue, has quietly affirmed that it is not mandatory for school districts to provide bilingual education to children whose primary language is not English.
>
> The memorandum sent April 8 to regional HEW officials, is intended to "clarify" the "misunderstandings" by some of the government's own civil rights enforcers about a sensitive policy paper issued last summer on the Hispanic-American, American Indian, Asian-American and other affected children.
>
> Many school officials have shared these "misunderstandings"—particularly the belief that Washington was requiring them to teach these students history, math, or other subjects for at least several years in their mother tongues rather than let the schools stress special English instruction.
>
> The Supreme Court did not require . . . any . . . school district to start bilingual programs for limited-English speaking children so they might receive an equal education opportunity. No specific remedy was sought by the students and so far the city (San Francisco) has not started special programs.
>
> Rather, in a majority decision written by now-retired Justice Douglas, the Court said, "Teaching English to the students of Chinese ancestry is one choice. Giving instruction to this group in Chinese is another. There may be others."
>
> But HEW's document, written by a task force composed chiefly of bilingualism advocates, used emphatic language which made it appear that bilingual programs were indeed being mandated.
>
> In addition, the task force declared that stressing "an ESL program is not appropriate" for such children though it would be a component of the total effort.
>
> This resulted in some regional HEW enforcers telling local school districts that they had to have bilingual programs.
>
> In a letter sent to Seattle school officials last September, for example, a regional director said Seattle was "required" to have one of the bilingual programs for an estimated 1,212 children of Filipino, Spanish, Japanese, Chinese, German, Korean, and other ancestry.
>
> But in the clarifying memorandum sent April 8, the Office for Civil Rights underlined the fact that the "Lau Remedies" were "guidelines only" and that they "are not exclusive."

The *Evening Journal* of Wilmington, Delaware, in an editorial of April 20 wrote under the title "Relaxing Bilingual Trend;"

> The greater latitude now possible under this most recent federal ruling should enable educators to seek out those programs that enable students of various ages to function most readily and effec-

Continued on page 16

IS ESL APPROPRIATE?

Continued from page 2

tively in the language of the country in which they have chosen to live. This does not mean that these students should be asked to forget their native language or to ignore their cultural heritage. But perhaps some of these activities should be placed into the after-school hours sphere, where religious education, music classes and other very desirable extras are now being fostered.

And on May 5, the *San Antonio Express* wrote: "Educators Fault Memo, Fear for Program"

A government memorandum to clear confusion on education of non-English speaking children stirred more confusion, and bilingual educators want the waters cleared.

The National Association of Bilingual Educators meeting in San Antonio, voted to seek a meeting with the secretary of Health, Education and Welfare on the matter.

They are concerned with an HEW memorandum of early April—which was construed by some to mean bilingual education is no longer totally sanctioned by the government.

The HEW memoranum said the Lau Remedies are only guidelines to be used by Office of Civil Rights investigators in determining the effectiveness of a school district's plan.

That was the item construed to mean bilingual education was no longer necessary.

"The Lau Remedies are very specific that bilingual education be used," said NABE President Albar Pena, a professor at the University of Texas at San Antonio.

"While bilingual education is preferred it isn't mandated," he added.

Pena—and other members of NABE executive committee—said misinterpretation of the memorandum had upset bilingual educators over the future of bilingual education.

This interpretation can be used as a vehicle for doing nothing," said Maria Medina Swanson, President-elect of NABE.

It is clear that the *Washington Post, Wilmington Evening Journal,* and the *San Antonio Express* articles have merely added to the kind of confusion, misinterpretation, and fear which has abounded over the past year. The effect of these kinds of statements will be that effective programs will be delayed, and appropriate solutions overlooked until the misconceptions are cleared up.

In the most recent TESOL publication entitled *ESL in Bilingual Education,* the Executive Secretary of TESOL clearly makes the kind of statement that opens the door for the kind of communication and clarification heeded when he states that, "What we need is more cooperation between, and a coalition of, teachers of ESL and specialists in bilingual education who can work together toward a common purpose, and that purpose is to help thousands of children throughout the United States to reach their full potential as citizens of our increasingly complex and troubled society."*

He further makes a call for the kind of action that a continuingly unilateral stance cannot hope to achieve when he states, "It is not uncommon for two fields such as TESOL and bilingual education to have a common, stated goal but, because of the professional anarchy which prevails, for one group to neutralize the other. The proliferation, duplication, and internecine conflict among organizations consumes energy and displaces constructive programs needed for development of an effective profession. We need planned integration of interrelated language groups, ATESL, TESOL, NABE, LSA, ACTFL, NCTE, MLA, and CAL, each with specialized functions, all directed toward common purposes."*

This is a call, clearly to those professionals in both, in *all* these organizations, to communicate as professionals, and cooperatively support effective and honest solutions to the problem.

* James E. Alatis, "The Compatibility of TESOL and Bilingual Education," in *English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education,* Alatis and Twaddel (eds.) Washington D.C.: TESOL, 1976.

CONVENTION REPORT

Teaching English as an Alien Language

This article was put together from reflections and recollections made by Cathy Day and Charles Blatchford and includes interview material gathered by Diana Berkowitz. Editor.

Earl Stevick's talk was a moving account and recapitulation of his odyssey seeking his solution to the riddle of language teaching. He talked about how he has changed over the years—from being a language teacher to a linguist to a language teacher—which is what he wants to be. It was very exciting to be led into new realms of human integration, into one man's settling into his own style of teaching, consistent with his whole being.

Dr. Stevick feels that the designation of the study of language teaching as a branch of applied linguistics may have the deleterious effect of distracting the teachers attention away from other things, namely the personal dynamics in the classroom. An overemphasis on linguistic analysis may make the teacher overly concerned about such things as contrastive analysis or applications of transformational grammar to language teaching. As a result of having such a perspective, the teacher may neglect the affective domains of the learning situation.

He mentioned that he had changed in his belief of how to teach language, saying he was, in a way, a bit puzzled by his own earlier insistence on "drill" and quoted his own quote, re: drill being the keystone in the arch. It is difficult to criticize his talk because of its personal nature, but his hallmark was humility in his quest. His presentation was a documented, carefully reasoned, and unassuming statement in which he was not seeking agreement but affirming his reconciliation of theory and practice. It was easy to identify with his talk as we search for harmony between our personal and professional lives, between in- and out-of-the-classroom personalities.

Dr. Stevick discussed barriers in the classroom, alienation, from the student's point of view: the barriers between the student and the new culture he is learning, between the student and the teacher, between the student and other students, and between the student and his self. Stevick not only pointed out how students may surmount these barriers by acts of psychological or physical withdrawal and aggression, but also suggested what the teacher could do to minimize the height of these barriers. Specifically, he felt that the student could learn more when the student feels secure, when the student is allowed to learn from himself and his peers. The realization of these three conditions depends to a very large degree upon the willingness of the teacher to let them exist, and just how the teacher can provide for the emergence of a conducive atmosphere is the challenge that each of us faces in our classrooms. Stevick can do it, but many of us cannot until we are of a mind to want to give up something of our position and share it with the student.

He now believes in a humanistic approach to language learning and teaching—giving credit to Curran/Counseling-Learning for most of his concepts. He feels he owes a great deal to the Silent Way. He finds the underlying principles of the Silent Way approach sufficiently compatible with those of CL so that it is not a matter of having to choose between them.

He is currently concerned for the students' ego, and for not invading the students' space nor alienating him. He believes that the student needs to do the initiating (not the teacher) and that practices (drills) can be developed after the student initiates. The teacher's role is therefore changed and it becomes very uncomfortable at first to not be the one directing or initiatin—but that students may learn more quickly and eagerly with this methodology.

In answer to a question about the differences between the psychologists claim that people tend to perform best when they are a little bit tense and the fact that in CL the learner is constantly reassured and made to feel as relaxed as possible, he said that he has found that better learning takes place when tension is reduced. However, tension and pressure are not completely gotten rid of in CL. Furthermore he agrees that if you put people under some pressure, you get better results than if you completely eliminate *all* pressure. It is a matter of quality as well as quantity. It is important to realize that there are different kinds of tension. One might be termed intellectual tension, i.e., frustration which can occur when the learner is having trouble working something out. This kind of tension can spur the learner on to try to increase his learning. On the other hand, tension which is caused by threats to one's self-concept, i.e., feeling of being evaluated or ordered around, leads to defensive learning.

Dr. Stevick believes that students learn better from themselves than from someone who is in a position of authority. In the latter case, things may "go in one ear and out the other." In contrast, when students work on themselves, they tend to better internalize the knowledge gained from this kind of activity. In addition, the knowledge comes in terms they can understand and at a time they are ready for it. One other important point is that students put up no resistance when they are learning from themselves, but they may resist getting information from someone in authority, i.e., defensive learning.

The students, this way, become independent of the teacher, and more dependent on each other for help in their language learning--they develop into a community of language learners.

Stevick went on to say that he was *not* issuing a clarion call for all language teachers to follow him along this path—first because he didn't think there were any more clarion calls in him; secondly because he wasn't at all sure that this approach was for everyone (he said all language teachers—but I would question all language students as well). He said that he thought there might be some good language teachers who for one reason or another couldn't use this methodology, but that he was going ahead with it himself.

T
Nev
wer
Ros
with

D
pers
Nev
awa
the
ucat
Apr

Ade
TES

Reprinted from the *ELI Monthly*, No. 9, February 1976

REFLECTIONS ON APPLIED LINGUISTICS

by J. Virgil Miller
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

These are some ideas gleaned from lectures and papers which were presented at the International Conference of Applied Linguistics held at the University of Stuttgart in Germany last summer.

An interlanguage is the language of a learner which deviates from the standard language that is spoken or taught. (The term *Interlanguage* was used by Professor Pitt-Corder of the School of Applied Linguistics at Edinburgh, Scotland, who delivered one of the major lectures). In some cases, it is a learner who is simply trying to imitate the standard with varying degrees of success. His first need is to communicate and he often does this in a very elementary fashion. He knows a few words and he puts them together in a way in which he hopes to make himself understood.

As a child learns, he approaches the standard. He imitates adults and older children and makes analogies and applies rules, sometimes wrongly as "I see two mans." The learner of a language in school adopts a similar interlanguage which tries to approximate the standard. But his system is not the same and there are certain deficiencies or errors. The errors could become embedded in the speech of a learner or even a whole speech community and thereby become a new dialect with its own structure and grammatical rules. But as long as one form of a language has prestige and the learner endeavors to speak it. The system of any one speaker undergoes constant change. Usually however the result is still less than standard. Part of the difficulty comes from interference with the learner's own language, where habits of articulation and intonation are very ingrained. Here the teacher has the responsibility to drill these points where the student's own language is a barrier.

Psychological factors are very important in the intersystem. The motivation, the cultural background, the personality of the student have to be considered. A learner can be very passive and only listen whereas he ought to master the language actively. Students may feel inhibited in talking the inter-language. Here the responsibility of creating live situations where language is observed and used is paramount.

In the social realm, the learned language has a context as well as a structure. As the students develop their interlanguage, they will begin to function as a small speech community, and here the social aspect again becomes important. *There is nothing so stiffling to a language being learned as when the student cannot get a feeling that the language is a living system used by real people.*

In some cases, children have grown up with two languages—where the father speaks one and the mother another, or a mixed community where two or more languages are spoken, usually one language is dominant—one may be a school language and the other a home language. One may be the language of the country and the other a minority language spoken by a smaller group of people, either a certain region or a certain class, such as an immigrant group. In some cases this may be a psychological block to a child for he may learn both languages but not as well as he would one language that he concentrates on. One study showed that this was true with very young children but if they continued to use and study both, it was possible to become proficient in both and compete successfully with other children in the national language.

In this study, social and psychological factors were very important. The degree of learning varied with the motivation. Perhaps the fastest learning took place when a person coming into a country learned to use only the new language and he was not among speakers of his language at all. In time such persons might lose their own language entirely, especially children. On the other hand with the encouragement of parents, children can easily separate the language of the home and the school.

There must be constant attention given to social and psychological factors, since the speaker of an immigrant language is often stigmatized for speaking it. Some parents take the easy way out and opt for the new language entirely and their children never learn their parent's language. Those who encourage the learning of both languages have the chance to have their child learn two languages equally well.

This concept of interlanguage can extend to the bid-dialectical area too, except that in this case the non-standard dialect is usually the first language and the standard is one being learned. The interlanguage of a minority dialect of the standard such as Black English is an approximation of standard English and the school tries to modify the learned patterns of the English dialect spoken at home. Doubtless this would be true for Scotch, Irish, mountain people, rural dialects etc., where the schools feel it is desirable to teach one standard through the whole country. German dialects illustrate this aptly where in many cases one dialect is spoken at home whole another is taught at school.

There are of course many areas where people speak several versions of the same language with ease. In a sense everyone does this in different contexts—slang at work or in recreation, even rough talk or profanity, a colloquial standard at home, an educated standard at school, and a formal standard while writing.

The emphasis should be on real situations. One great criticism of language programs is that they are too mechanical and that the situations are too artificial. This conference made that criticism more than once and individuals made some rather negative comments on machines for teaching language. It was thought that electronic equipment, while it may be a help, worked only on repetition of fixed phrases and took the language out of a real communication situation. *The same might be said for many language texts which stress repetition and structural patterns, often at the expense of natural discourse.* No one opposes the use of repetition and reinforcement in teaching any subject. But in dealing with human beings we have the opportunity of teaching them to use logic, analogy, association and many other devices available to the human mind. Our speakers noted that memorizing texts in languages could have a negative effect, since in some cultures memorization is developed to such a fine degree that whole textbooks are memorized in order to pass an examination. If memory is used in language teaching to too great a degree it may become repetition without thinking and therefore meaningless as a means of communication.

The important point of the conference seems to me to be the emphasis on the learner of the language rather than the teacher or the method. It is the student who has to learn it, so it would seem best to start with him, and start him where he is. If he knows nothing of the new language, the pronunciation, structure and vocabulary have to be given to him. If he knows it imperfectly, the teacher has to take him from there and in the language of the conference, to help him make his approximate system approach the standard.

UPDATING A STEREOTYPE

Bruce Coleman

Alemany Adult School,
San Francisco

What does the layman ask when he meets an English as a second language (ESL) instructor from an adult school program for the first time?

"You work at night, don't you?"

"Aren't most of your students old, poor, and uneducated?"

"Do you teach Mexicans (or Puerto Ricans) mostly?" No?" "Well, how many languages do you speak?" And,

"How can you teach foreigners if you don't speak all of their languages?"

Like a lot of stereotypes, these deserve to be questioned and, perhaps, buried. But, if nothing more, they should at least be updated to 1976.

Such an updating has just been accomplished in a revealing survey by Donna Ilyin in a nation-wide questionnaire and student population survey.

One hundred and twenty-six persons, or 36 per cent, responded to the two-page survey sent to 333 TESOL members of the Adult Special Interest Group.

Responses came from large cities such as New York and Detroit and small towns such as Escondido, California, and Rock Springs, Wyoming, as well as from Canada, Hawaii and Japan.

Findings that appear to break stereotypes are:

(1) Instead of students being mostly in the over 55 age group, the survey indicated that most students are in an 18 to 29-year-old age group. (Most teachers reported, however, that they also had students in the same class aged 30 to 35 and some older.)

(2) Another typical stereotype is that adult students are slow learners, uneducated, come from disadvantaged backgrounds and don't really know how or want to learn English. They'd rather just socialize in their own language with people from their homeland. On the contrary, over half the teachers in the survey indicated that most of the students in their classes had completed high school in another country; six responded that most had completed college or university while four stated that most of their students had started college. (Again, however, teachers reported that, in the same class, there were some students with little education and some that had finished colleges and universities.) Survey results showed that most of the ESL students in adult classes are "young, well-educated and underemployed," and not in school as a stepping stone to a college or university. Most of the teachers questioned said their students are trying to get enough English to enter the fields in which they have already been trained.

(3) Most ESL adult students go to school at night is another stereotype. Again—not true. The tally shows that more teachers reported teaching classes during the day than the night. Sixty-six teachers said they teach during the day while 52 said they teach in the evening.

(4) Most ESL adult students are Spanish-speaking—runs another popular stereotype. This is correct in a sense but it is not at all true when you consider the overal' class makeup. Surveyed teachers reported having predominantly "mixed language groups." That is, 110 teachers said they teach mixed language groups while 11 teachers said they have Spanish-speaking students only, two Japanese speakers only, one Chinese and one French only. In the mixed language groups where dominant languages were represented, 68 teachers reported that most of their mixed students were Spanish speaking, 13 reported that most were Chinese speaking, five said Japanese, five Korean, four Vietnamese, four Arabic, three French, two Persian, two Italian, two Polish, one Russian, one Greek, one Filipino and one Punjabi.

(5) Another stereotype is that adult ESL students are often middle class foreigners and they do not work. Adult classes used to have numbers of students who were, for the most part, supported by their relatives either here or in their home countries, but the Ilyin survey figures point out that teachers estimate over 50 per cent of the students work either part or full-time. Are they in consulate or embassy situations where they might not need to improve their English? No. Although a few are visiting or on diplomatic visas, most students do menial, low-paying jobs such as that of dishwasher, bus boy, kitchen helper, seamstress or some type of housework.

Other aspects of the survey show that, in the teaching situation, teachers do not find any simple stereotypes but, instead, are confronted with something some liken to a "moveable circus." For example, some classes are set up in store fronts, in churches, in school rooms with chairs designed for children and wherever space can be found. Then—to juggle the different proficiency levels, age groups, language groups and cultures—many teachers use tapes, slides, movies, flash cards and realia to hold everything together. A Canadian teacher illustrates the kind of predicaments teachers must handle in an open enrollment class setting when she wrote:

"I teach any one of six various levels to any adult from any country. . . some having lived in Canada anywhere from less than a week to 20 or more years. Ninety per cent of the students have come to live here the rest of their lives. There are anywhere from 15–72 in a class at various times."

Teachers were asked to tell their greatest successes and greatest problems in teaching.

The greatest problem was the wide diversity of a class with the lack of ready-made, individualized instruction materials which meant the problem of finding enough time to prepare all the materials needed.

Along with this problem were the related problems of having students illiterate in their own language in the same class as those who had academic habits and reading skills, and of having students with nil proficiency entering after a course was well under way.

Teachers reported in the survey that most of their classes have from 11 to 25 students at a session for two to three hours a day anywhere from four to 30 hours a week.

The majority of the teachers reported that most of the students fell into levels 100 to 200 where students had some English skills.

Forty-four teachers estimated that up to 10 per cent of their class was functionally illiterate in their own languages.

Literacy in the non-Roman alphabet was reported upon by 83 teachers. Of those teachers, only 18 said that over 75 percent of their students were literate in the non-Roman alphabet.

Teachers were asked to report what most of their students' aspirations were. The main aspirations were: Literacy in English (the amount necessary to find a job in their present field), (53 teachers reporting); to upgrade their job, (32); to obtain any job, (17); to enter college or university, (13). Aspirations also included: Conversation skills, cultural reasons, survival English and to obtain U.S. citizenship.

More than half of the schools and institutions covered in the survey give students certificates of attendance or course completion authentication.

Teachers said that programs are usually financed by a combination of two or more federal, state or local agencies.

Bilingual Education: For the Melting Pot or for a New American Pluralism

by Allan Wiener
Human Resources Division
National Puerto Rican Forum

Bilingual education has existed since the founding of this nation. However, as a formal recognized response to a perceived educational need, it is recent. The recent proliferation of Bilingual Programs has been spurred by Title VII, of the ESEA, which for the first time provides funds for the implementation of such programs.

This legislation came into being based on two major observations; that there were certain groups in this country that were not performing in school as they should have been, and the dissemination of information based on linguistics, specifically, that reading and writing in elementary stages were extensions of already internalized structures in a students' vernacular. The humaneness and economy of providing instruction in certain areas such as mathematics in the students' vernacular was also apparent.

Before we proceed into the two main thrusts of what bilingual education is or could be, it might be wise to discuss what bilingual education is not. Bilingual Education is not ESL. Though a strong ESL program is part of any bilingual program, it is, but one of its constituents. Another myth that should be laid to rest is that bilingual staff does not automatically guarantee the existance of bilingual program. What is most important is that teachers involved perceive of themselves in their bilingual roles and subscribe to the philosophy of what a bilingual program is.

Most current bilingual programs appear to subscribe to the traditional goals of American education. That is, the domination of the various curricular areas and skills, ultimately in English. What is not apparent in this is that Bilingual Education is looked upon in these programs as a technique to achieve ultimate English dominance over the students' vernacular. There is a planned phasing out of the students' native language until, if its study is pursued, it is phased into the area of Foreign language instruction. This is a narrow and ultimately a self-defeating approach to bilingualism.

There is a more ample approach to bilingual education, one which per-

Continued on Next Page

MELTING POT

Continued from Page 15

ceives of pluralism as a positive aspect of American society and views bilingualism and multilingualism as a great national resource. The awareness that occurred with the outbreak of WW II should have taught the Educational Community that we were in the wrong direction when we interpreted Americanization, in a narrow sense, as a goal of our system. We are now, though grudgingly, being given the opportunity to develop the linguistic and cultural resources of this nation. If we continue to interpret our bilingual mandate of just a technique to provide ultimate English dominance, we once again will have missed our opportunity. If, on the other hand, we attempt to develop bilingual capacities in all areas, we will have done our nation a tremendous

TN. Vol.I NO.2 April 1976

Are We Meeting the Needs of Foreign Students?

By Maria Luz Urban
Great Neck Public Schools

Often because of the anxieties and pressures of daily life, we loose sight of the fact that children, too, are human beings subject to emotional problems created at home or in school. The teachers function is therefore not only to develop a child into a knowledgeable and responsible individual; but also, to meet his basic emotional needs, if we are to make him a happy, successful and well adjusted person. This requires that teachers develop the sensitivity and skill to detect and alleviate such problems.

Through work with foreign students, I have noticed that learning English as a second language is not their only problem. There is a definite need for acculturation to our American way of life. Although we know that children tend to adapt to change more rapidly than adults; we also know that, where possible, extreme change should be effected gradually, keeping in mind the personality of the child, his social environment, and his cultural heritage—if we are to keep intact his sense of security and well being. Teaching a newly arrived foreign student presents a number of special problems not present in teaching the average student.

Most foreign students come from a traditional school where rigid structure, discipline, and obedience are basic stressed values. For these students, entry into a progressive system can be an unsettling and confusing experience which requires substantial change in their educational, social, and moral values. Without the help of a trained, perceptive, and understanding teacher; an immature child freed from traditional values may take the path towards radical behavior. But given the needed help, most will quickly come to realize that though the progressive school does not place as great an emphasis on discipline, obedience and formality, it is not lacking in values. Its just that the values may not be as obvious.

During their period of transition, each child must be shown that values relate to environment, culture and religious beliefs, and that their own values need not be thrown away to embrace the new. Instead they should be encouraged to develop their personal values by selecting the best of old and new. In this way we may be able to lessen the impact of value change on

Continued on page 19

more of a challenge than the

ARE WE MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE FOREIGN STUDENT?

Continued from page 17

their sense of security. We must guard against the situations where children blinded by their desires to 'belong' (to some group) adopt a false set of values which eventually lead to emotional disturbances.

As teachers, we also have the responsibility to help parents to understand the problems which their children are experiencing, and of the important need for parental love, guidance, and support which they must provide during this adjustment period. In many cases this will involve the education of the child's parents to the fact that adaptation to a new culture does not mean a complete values change. Parents would naturally resist a complete change which is foreign to their personal philosophy.

It is unfortunate that many parents take a passive role in the education of their children; some because they do not wish to interfere in school philosophy; others because they fear their children will be penalized if they criticize or question current school practice. In some cases, the parents themselves are so overwhelmed and preoccupied with their own problems that they neglect the needs of their children. It is evident that these parents do not fully appreciate the important contribution that they could be making to the education of their young.

In conclusion, it is my belief that teachers must become more concerned and involved in the fulfillment of their students emotional needs, and that parents should have available to them a complementary course in adult education designed to show them how they may best contribute to the educational process. For only when both family and school are united in purpose can we design the far reaching programs that will effectively deal with the emotional side of child development.

Reprinted from the *CATESOL Newsletter* Vol 7, No. 3, November 1975.

ESL and ESD: Some Similarities and Differences

by Carletta Hartsough
Alemany Community College Center,
San Francisco

Dr. Kenneth Johnson's presentation at the CATESOL Conference on the similarities and differences in teaching Standard American English (SAE) to foreigners and to speakers of Black dialect was both a delightful and informative insight into Black English and Black culture. Pointing out that language is a reflection of culture, Dr. Johnson stressed the importance of clear definitions of Black People and Black dialect.

A Black person, an American Negro, is "someone who says he's one." He asserted that Black persons can only be defined "in terms of cultural characteristics, a shared experience by 20,000,000 people." One of these experiences is language. Since sub-cultures, such as the Black culture, overlap with the dominant culture, it is those areas of difference which create the identity of the members of that sub-culture. One of these differences, again, is language.

If the goal of integration is assimilation, as it seems to be, achievement of that goal means the loss of sub-cultural difference and therefore the loss of identity. It means the loss of a viable linguistic system which differs from SAE in its grammar, its phonology, its intonation patterns, and somewhat in its lexicon. In defining dialect, Dr. Johnson rejects the term social dialect because it implies that only lower classes of Black people communicate in or are familiar with this dialect. Black dialect is, he says, a cultural dialect, a variety of English spoken by all classes of Black people. According to Johnson, the class differences are that the lower class Black speaks *only* the dialect while the middle class Black speaks SAE also.

Given, the importance of Black dialect in all segments of the Black culture, it becomes apparent that SAE must be taught to speakers of Black dialect as an alternate, rather than a replacement dialect as it has been, and is being, taught in our schools today.

Dr. Johnson presented and countered some false assumptions about Black dialect and its speakers:

1. Blacks are non-verbal.

Continued on next page

Continued from page 18

2. Blacks have poor auditory discrimination skills.
3. Black dialect is incapable of expressing abstract concepts.
4. Black dialect speakers don't even understand one another.
5. Blacks have "lazy lips and lazy tongues"—they are physiologically incapable of speaking "correct" English.

He also gave samples of some of the ways in which Black dialect differs from SAE:

Intonation: How intonation patterns in greeting convey greatly differing emotions.

Grammar: The omission of the copula which communicates "now." The insertion of "be" which communicates habitual activity. The three past tenses of Black dialect.

Phonological: One of the rules for consonant reduction: if a word ends in two voiceless consonants, the last of which is a stop, the last consonant is eliminated. (With the above rule, one can then understand the systematic plural formation for words like desk-/deses/, tests-/teses/ and the oral nonexistence of the past tense marker in many words.

In practice, speakers of Black dialect and speakers of foreign languages do the same thing. They impose the phonology of their own linguistic systems on that of SAE. The most important similarity in approach to these two groups is the need to recognize the differing discrimination skills, to focus on areas of interference and conflict points, to identify them and then to work on them. Other similarities are that language is identity and any new linguistic system must be an alternate and not a replacement. A third similarity is that both groups need practice.

The major difference is that the Black dialect speaker already speaks and understands English. He can also understand but can't reproduce SAE. Second language techniques can only be used in very short, intense doses. The best approach, Dr. Johnson feels, is to put the Black child in a situation where SAE is required and the child will learn it.

He insists that children who speak other languages and those who speak Black dialect do not have the same problems. They cannot be lumped into a single group and treated in the same manner. Black dialect children cannot be shoved into the same language programs with the same methods and approaches.

TN. Vol. I No. 2 April 1976

Teaching Written English Through Sector Analysis

by David E. E. Sloane and Eleanor Frörup, Medgar Evers College, CUNY

Teachers have needed for sometime a vehicle for systematic attempts at focusing student interest on sentence structure. In some places, transformational grammar has filled the vacuum in writing instruction left by the collapse of confidence in the old fashioned Reed and Kellogg sentence diagramming. Typically, teachers of English as a second language have been more pragmatic than both conventional and transformational schools, working heavily with language markers and positional relationships. Sector Analysis should prove a valuable tool in this area. Developed originally to teach English sentence structure to twelve-year-olds in Turkey, it has proved adaptable to ESL as well as to remedial language instruction in writing in the open enrollment situation; a number of instructors in C.U.N.Y. institutions have reported success with it, and controlled experiments are soon to be set in motion in Ontario and Baltimore County, Maryland. Nevertheless, with one or two major exceptions, Sector Analysis as a potential tool for teachers of "edited" American English remains a well-kept secret. Robert L. Allen, of Columbia Teachers College in New York City, developed Sector Analysis at about the same time that Kenneth Pike established Tagmemics—slot-and-filler grammar—as a system of linguistic analysis. Since the two systems are similar, this may account for the relative obscurity of Sector Analysis. With the publication of a work-text, *Working Sentences*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1975 (with which this article is chiefly concerned), Sector Analysis now becomes generally available for teaching written English and its popularity should increase.

Sector Analysis is called "X-Word Grammar" by many of its users because of its emphasis on the function of twenty or so modal auxiliaries which are used in the formation of question and answer patterns in English. English, and particularly written English, is approached from a linguistic perspective as a slot-and-filler or position-and-construction language. Sector Analysis is defined, therefore, as a practical linguistically-oriented grammar which describes the "edited" American English sentence as a sequence of positions (subject, predicate, adverbials, etc.) which may be filled by various construction types (noun clusters, clauses, phrases, half-sentences, etc.) One of the most useful aspects of this grammar is that the regularity with which certain constructions fill certain positions in English opens the way for pattern acquisition, drill, diagrammatic analysis, and even advanced stylistic studies through a wide range of instructional programs in language development; identification of determiners, language ties between subjects and verbs, and related pattern keys can be advantageous to both the ESL, FL, and remedial learner.

Dr. Allen's approach actually emphasizes a consciousness of language patterns that is best used as a form of editing. Traditional grammar tends to obscure the lines between spoken English and the standards of "edited" American English; Sector Analysis depends on patterns acquired through the spoken-language experience of learners, but its orientation fosters an awareness of the slightly different conventions governing *written* English. Both the "Preface" to *Working Sentences* and the accompanying teacher's guide stress the use of students' editing ability through the recognition of units of language anticipated by native speakers in expository writing (as opposed to drama or other forms of transcribed speech). Language "chunking," the ability to recognize constructions and word clusters as conveyors of meaning, is as important as individual word recognition. Consequently, students who have some vocabulary problems may still advance rapidly in the recognition of meaningful word units. One of the techniques in remedial instruction has been to offer sentences composed of nonsense words for analysis through structural markers and positions; students become remarkably adept at such drills in a few weeks and seem to expand their own use of language structures. A language instruction program based on Sector Analysis may be more concept-oriented than word-oriented, a boon to teachers who have never felt that Reed and Kellogg diagramming adequately explains such language choices as plural and singular agreement for "Half of the apples *are* . . ." but "Half of the pie *is* . . ."—a choice made relatively simple to understand through the treatment of subjects as noun clusters, language chunks, rather than as single words independently related to a verb. The checking of such patterns using X-Word Grammar "tools" represents the editing ability mentioned above.

A close examination of the work-text, *Working Sentences*, by Robert L. Allen, Rita Pompian, and Doris A. Allen, indicates a variety of uses to which the grammar can be put in helping the student to consciously identify his own grammatical patterns *and employ this knowledge.* The fifteen "Units" into which the book is divided focus on major areas of reference, modification, and predication. Particular attention is paid to the basic trunk pattern and its relationship to the functions of the twenty most common X-Words and to the packing process by which trunks can be expanded and given variety in writing. The yes-no question-answer pattern *(Is John here?/ John is here.)* is the basis of Sector Analysis. Twenty X-Words which begin such question patterns *(am/is/are/was/were/ /do/ does/did/ /have/has/had/ /shall/ will/could/would/should/ /may/ might/must/can)* send information merely by position. When these X-Words introduce a sentence, they indicate a question just as clearly as does the inverted question mark in written Spanish; in the middle of a sentence they identify a statement. One of Dr. Allen's chief contentions is that the ability to formulate these language patterns is rapidly acquired, and classroom experience indicates that students can use the patterns with very high success in one or two weeks of instruction. The movement of the X-Word serves to identify the subject sector (regardless of whether it is filled by a single word or *x* number of words which together function as a nominal construction) and the predicate in the basic English trunk—the first five units of the text cover this material. The linguistic ties governing subject-verb agreement in number and verb tense formation, crucial prestige features of English, are dealt with in units three and four. Unit five introduces the basic positions of the predicate and establishes the groundwork for the following eight units, which deal with various techniques for embedding information and for packing sentence trunks with additional information. In later units, the student is introduced to optional sentence sectors through a few simple terms, such as "shifter" and "insert," which identify their most obvious characteristics. Included clauses and half-sentences (one of Dr. Allen's most useful concepts for teachers working with secondary predications and substitutions of verbal phrases) are identified as important construction types. Charts covering (1) X-Word/verb combinations for verb phrases, (2) forms of irregular verbs, (3) includers—the words which signal the beginning of included clauses, or subordinate clauses in traditional

Continued on page 12

SECTOR ANALYSIS

Continued from page 11

grammar, and (4) the twenty X-Words, *appear at the end of the text* for student reference.

The format of the text is particularly worthy of note. *Working Sentences* employs brief sub-sections composed of explanations followed by examples. A practice exercise follows each subsection and calls for diagramming or closing to complete a structural requirement. Units are concluded by controlled tasks using the new techniques to encourage the student to manipulate sentence parts and finally generate his own sentences on a given topic. Brief concluding essay assignments call for the constructions and sentence patterns of the unit. Because of this approach, punctuation is subordinated to the developmnet of structure, and as the student masters the repertoire of sentence sectors and appropriate construction fillers, he discovers that punctuation rules are reduced to a minimum. We have felt that this subordination of marking conventions to structural logic is a major advantage of Sector Analysis.

The *Instructor's Manual* to *Working Sentences* is helpful to the teacher who has not taken formal courses in Sector Analysis. Explanatory notes take up the conventions of written English and offer more detailed explications of the theory than would have been appropriate in the work-text itself. Suggestions are given for dealing with specific student questions likely to occur as well as for the development of additional practice exercises. "A Final Word to the Instructor" makes the mind-set of the authors particularly clear—focus on the lesson and ignore peripheral areas, do not inhibit with excessive red penciling, use the book as a tool for the student to develop his own writing rather than as an end in itself.

The chief application of Sector Analysis for the purposes of this commentary are seen to lie in the area of remediation, particularly in the first semester college freshman in the CUNY open admission environment. Initial writing samples show fragments to be one of the most persistent problems in this area. Usually, the student has been told that he has a major problem, and "*fr.*," or "fragment" is well-known to him as an identification of his error, but the student has no concept of what fragment means and no tangible way to identify or correct it. Sector Analysis offers such means: first, after working with yes-no questions to identify subjects and predicates, the student learns how to identify the omission of verbs, X-Words, or subject sectors; second, as the student goes deeper into Sector Analysis, learning to identify construction types such as clauses or half-sentences, and learning the optional sectors (e.g., front and end positions for secondary predications, which if filled are often filled with clauses), he learns why a clause punctuated as a sentence is a fragment, and moreover, how to incorporate this clause into the preceding or following sentence. Even before the student covers this step, if he applies the yes-no question strategy—and tries to turn his clause into a yes-no question—he can identify the fragment because the question sentence cannot be formed.

Editing is very important in this process; simply learning sectors and construction types may not be enough. Students often need coaxing to actually test the interchange. One successful exercise uses a student writing sample which is reasonably connected discourse with all the errors, except fragments, corrected. Students are told how many fragments appear and are asked to find them one by one, rewriting the passages and comparing the two writing samples as they proceed. Numbering the sentences in the exercise prevents the student from being overwhelmed and helps him to limit his focus; word groups punctuated as sentences can be treated one at a time. The rewriting practice is beneficial by itself, and the comparison of the two samples clearly delineates sectors and constructions, completing the lesson. This structured approach to editing prepares the student for longer assignments. Similar techniques also teach the identification and correction of run-ons, comma splices, and subject-verb ties.

Another important application of Sector Analysis is in the development of sentence variety. One of our colleagues at Hunter College, teaching bilinguals and native speakers, uses color-coded algebricks, identifying a different construction type with each color, with one color for single words; varying colors are used to build sentences. Students learn to construct sentences by visual dictation. Sophistication and clarity both increase. Even in cases of the Black English language population, analysis of constructions indicates that new areas of the sentence are used and there is an increase of correct constructions which is striking—and these changes begin taking place even before the casual reader (and sometimes casual grader) is aware of writing improvement. Still, the teacher is cautioned that practice and time are essential; they may well be lags in affective growth and we do not yet know to what extent regression occurs with this approach.

The behavioral effects of a program based on Sector Analysis are worthy of special note. Self-confidence is radically expanded through experience with the system of X-Word Grammar. In one graduate program for minorities, instructors who were educational psychologists made special note of the growth in volume of writing, increased personal self-confidence, and of some students' use of sentence diagrams in their actual log-writing. The same educational psychologists noted a second significant feature of X-Word Grammar; it allows teacher and student to focus writing instruction on the needs of the reader—his expectations for conventional sentence patterns and the inability of many readers to resolve departures from those types. Refocusing instruction toward reader needs makes the learning environment less threatening to the student.

Sector Analysis, because it offers a systematic language structure perhaps, seems to be a much freer body of material in the classroom. Dr. Allen spends time with his own students on "Boinguage," which uses the word "boing" in place of content words—nouns, verbs, and adjectives, with "boingly" in place of *-ly* adverbs. A sample sentence might be "Boing can boing the boing." With such sentences, students can be introduced rapidly to the common markers in English and be convinced of their importance; and even without technical knowledge, most readers will admit that they can identify the subject sector of such a sentence, the object (a noun cluster), and the predicate. It is even possible to demand of students: "Don't think!", thereby stressing the positions and patterns which they already recognize unconsciously if native speakers of the language. Soon students can neither be defeated by Boinguage, other nonsense sentences, or English sentences in which the vocabulary is foreign to their experience; reading and writing skills are both developed in this case. There is a distinct advantage to the teacher in separating closed lists of structure words, which can be memorized, from the unending list of content words which frequently confuse the grammar lesson.

The use of Sector Analysis in the teaching of reading is of major importance and teaching across the entire spectrum of the English curriculum may respond positively to the potential which Sector Analysis holds.

Vol X NO. 2 April 1976

A Counseling-Learning Model for Second Language Learning

by Jenny Rardin, Counseling-Learning Institute

The Counseling-Learning model for education, developed by Dr. Charles A. Curran of Loyola University, Chicago, and his associates, has been receiving much attention recently from educators and particularly from the language teaching profession. Much of this interest is due to Earl W. Stevick, who reviewed Curran's book in 1973 and Carol and Nobuo Akiyama, who generated interest in the Peace Corps which resulted in several Community Language Learning Teacher Training Programs.

"Community Language Learning" is the name given to the application of this model to language learning since it results in a special kind of learning community.

Original Research

The original research which began in the late fifties, was designed to study the psychological dynamics involved in adult learning, specifically, foreign language learning, rather than to develop a methodology of language teaching. Foreign languages were chosen as the learning task. As a result, students in the research classes—some using four languages simultaneously, some, one at a time—achieved varying levels of confidence and "communicative competence" in one or more foreign languages.

One of the questions that was raised at the outset of the research was whether awarenesses from counseling and psychotherapy could facilitate the learning process by becoming an integral part of that process. Since many of the blockings that language learners expressed were quite similar to those expressed by persons coming for psychotherapy or psychological counseling, it was theorized that if language experts were also trained in counseling sensitivities and skills, this double expertise would bring about significant changes in the quality of the learning relationship between teacher and learners and among learners themselves.

Curran's book, *Counseling-Learning A Whole-Person Model for Education*[1] (1972) presented the findings from over twelve years of research in this model of "creative affiliation between teacher and learners." The findings and model itself are as Earl Stevick puts it, "infinitely rich in subtleties" and a process of study and experience with it in learning situations, re-study and re-experience can yield an increasing grasp of its complexities.

The five following statements while not exhaustive, are basic to an understanding of the Counseling-Learning model. 1) All final human learning is value learning; 2) Resistance is inherent in any adult learning situation; 3) Human learning is whole-person learning; 4) Human learning is persons; 5) Human learning moves through a five-stage process of internalization.

Value Learning

A basic concept underlying the Counseling-Learning model is that all whole-person, human learning is, in fact, value learning. This concept is treated by Curran in his book, *Counseling and Psychotherapy: The Pursuit of Values* (1968).[2] By "values," Curran means conscious or unconscious self investments—that is, such self-investments are either determined by oneself or pre-determined by the cultural, family, religious neighborhood, etc., values one is born into.

In other words, if we as teachers see ourselves as the cause of a learning conflict within the student, simply because we represent a certain body of knowledge which the student wishes to learn, then we will be more understanding about the kind of struggle that we have created in the student. That this struggle is not just intellectual is especially evident in the area of foreign language learning whenever "communicative competence" is stressed. The whole-person of the learner is especially involved if he or she aims at a speaking ability rather than simply grammar, vocabulary and reading.

Many students in a language class at first "get butterflies" just thinking about having to pronounce the foreign language in front of the class, let alone trying to carry on a conversation. This would be one level of struggle. But suppose, for example, the Spanish speaking student is consciously or unconsciously aware that by learning English he/she is in a complicated way alienating himself/herself from the parents who speak no English; it is obvious that we are at another level of struggle.

What the Counseling-Learning model offers therefore, is a means of understanding these personal learning conflicts in such a way that learners as well as teachers may deal constructively with negative as well as positive feelings. As a result, both can make genuine investments in the learning relationship and so experience less discouragment with one another and the material to be internalized or learned. Personal learning conflicts and confrontations then, in this sense, can always have a positive tone because the student's anger, anxiety and similar psychological disturbance—understood and responded to by the teacher's counseling sensitivity—are indicators of deep personal investment. Even indifference, seen this way, proves often to be a form of defense against anxiety and fear of failure rather than resistance to learning.

D. D. Tranel talks about teaching as "not just an intellectual encounter with the student but as a psychological encounter."

Begin, found that in the human learning situation, students are "appraisers." Curran originally treated this under the concept of man's search for meaning and as "Man: The 'Why' Animal." Just as a client seeks to understand himself and his relationship with others in the counseling process so a student is consciously or unconsciously seeking a satisfactory "why" for his/her studies. This is fundamental to and prior to any adequate self-investment. Such evaluation is needed to arrive at value investments and decision making. But misunderstood and misinterpreted it can throw the learning exchange between knower and learner into a "games-we-play" routine of questions and answers which avoid personal engagement in the real learning experience.

The course content in most universities and colleges, is usually described in abstract and impersonal terms. The student, however, at a more personal level or inward direction, is most likely trying to evaluate the "why" in some relation to his own life goals. Curran's contrast of traditional British and European upper-class education for the few, which presumes an established value system, with an American democratic education for all, resulting in a confusion or decrease of accepted values, is helpful here. It helps illuminate why so much of this value confusion and struggle may now be going on in our classrooms—known or unknown to us as teachers.

So, under the surface of the learning that is apparent to us in our classrooms, may be not only the "questing" of "Why am I learning this?" but also "Who am I?" and "How does what I am learning, relate to who I am and where I am going in life?" This makes the teaching/learning relationship immeasureably more complex and challenging but, at the same time, more humanly satisfying. It also suggests

Continued on page 22

Continued from page 21

the necessity of additional teacher awarenesses and skills beyond good classroom techniques.

Adult Resistance

Another basic concept of the Counseling-Learning model is that in most adolescent or adult learning there is an inherent resistance to the new knowledge being presented. This results from the developmental process that produces self-awareness or self-"consciousness" after twelve or so. The learner's need for personal self-assertion, often begins to show itself against the knower—seemingly impeding the acceptance of and submission to, the learning process. This is an additional cause of "clash" in any learning situation. This resistance is generally not conscious or at least not always made evident to the teacher—particularly as we move into adult learning—but rather is often disguised in the form of "questions" or similar tactics.

Applied to the language learning experience, we have, for example, often seen groups of students who came together for the purpose of speaking a second language, suddenly find themselves asking questions *about* the language, the culture, the country—in their native tongue—rather than personally engaging in the struggle to communicate in the second language. From the point of view of their ego-assertion need, such submission to the handicapped state of a second language is too humiliating.

But, if the learner is to make the second language his own and so make it operational—be able to speak French, say—there must be an acceptance of an initial state of ignorance and, in this sense, "humiliation." This is difficult for adults to do. This does not mean total helplessness but rather a kind of dependency on another with which adolescents and adults are generally not comfortable. This is why, in the Counseling-Learning modality, native experts were trained in counseling sensitivities. This then provided the necessary security at the beginning of the learning process which enabled adolescent or adult learners to regress to a childlike—not childish—trust in the language-counselor-expert. As a result, they could, with less anxiety and resistance, accept and submit to strange language sounds and structures and to the process of learning. This produced too, a growing closeness to and deep sense of supportive community from the other learners—the opposite of our usual classroom competitive individualism.

Whole-Person Learning

Once this trust has been established in the Community Language Learning setting, it becomes clear how human learning is whole-person learning. As adults, we are extremely skilled at masking our feelings. But once we are free to "feel about" the language learning experience and are understood in our feelings, then we are free to "know-feel" the language. It is in proportion as teachers are skilled in an ability both to understand these feelings and to "re-cognize" them—that is, adequately cognize them in their responses—that learners in the Counseling-Learning modality are able to assimilate or internalize the second language in an authentic total-person way. In other words, they can "invest" in it and so make it a personal value goal. Such investment is basic to the growth of a new "language-self."

Current literature is concerned with this when it talks about having "real" communication in the classroom. Real learning, in Counseling-Learning terms, means learning that is brought about by an "interaction between the knower and the learner in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness." In the first stages of the learning process, for example, this can mean that the material to be internalized is generated by the learners in a "childlike" but real conversation, limited only in the extent of words used. Such conversation, however, demands the aid and support of the language expert. Both learner and knower are therefore deeply engaged: the learner willingly accepts his need for help; the knower gives this help in such a way that it can be easily utilized. Such a mutual process gradually frees the learner from his dependency on the knower. The teacher, in this sense, willingly strives for and accepts the final goal of being no longer needed by the learner.

It is this engagement that makes possible a "whole-person" entry into the language.

Learning Is Persons

We come then to the notion of learning as an intensely personal experience. This resulted in Curran's expression, "learning is persons." As students in such research groups came together, for example, their central purpose was to share and communicate as persons, much as they would in an ordinary conversation. The difference, however, was that they did so in a foreign language, through their "other self," which at first was the language-counselor-expert. Each student's natural urge for independence soon produced a slow emergence of a new inner language self as words and phrases were picked up and so internalized. This arrangement also created a strong sense of support, responsibility, and belonging from all members of the group. Such a secure and deeply personal engagement and commitment together, came to be called "community language learning."

Five Stage Process

Learning in this modality moves through a five-stage process from dependency to a basic independence. This five-stage process can be seen from varying points of view such as the gradual growth from dependency on the expert to the learner's independent linguistic competence; the personal learning group process as it moves toward a deep sense of community; the changing functional relationships between knower and learner; and other aspects of the five stages. To go into detail about each is beyond the scope of this article. But the footnotes lead to the original sources where the reader can find extended explanations and illustrations of these stages.

A Multi-Faceted Model

From what has been said of Counseling-Learning, it becomes clear that this is a model rich in subtleties. It has, therefore, a wide variety of applications. These applications involve such areas as the group process in foreign language learning; evaluative and emotional factors in foreign language learning; the process of education in general and its effects at the elementary, high school and university levels; the acquisition of two foreign languages simultaneously and finally, intensive adult learning. Some common conclusions emerge. Through Counseling-Learning, learners begin to understand themselves better as persons while, at the same time, they increasingly make a part of themselves an area of knowledge outside themselves. Such results, as we see, combine aims shared by both counseling therapy and education.

We are treating here, therefore, a multi-faceted model rather than a simple technique. From the underlying concepts of this model various techniques can be developed, depending upon the needs of different learning situations.

Curran has said:

In order to unify and bring together the whole person in the learning process, we have to do more than merely label it whole-person learning. We must basically restructure our approach.

REFERENCES

1. Curran, C. A., New York: Grune and Stratton, Inc., 1972.

2. Curran, C. A., 1st edition, 1968; 2nd edition, 1976, Apple River Press, Apple River, Illinois.

ENGLISH THE FAMILY WAY

by Thomas Raftery

The Family Language Program of John Jay High School in Park Slope is the only one of its kind in the city. Not only does it bring the classroom to students in their own homes, it includes their entire families.

For one hour a week, 22 teachers go into the homes of 60 selected students, who speak virtually no English. There, usually in the warmth and security of the family kitchen, the students learn to cope with a strange language, to better enable them to go on to graduation.

Enrolled in the program are 40 Spanish-speaking students who come from either Puerto Rico, Ecuador, El Salvador or the Dominican Republic; 13 French-speaking students from Haiti; four Italian students; one Chinese student from Hong Kong; one Ibo-speaking student from Nigeria and one Portugese speaking student from Brazil.

To qualify for the program, a student must be registered at the high school; must have migrated here within the last year; be from a non-English-speaking background; be from a poverty income family and have a minimum of five persons in the family participating in the classes.

Mrs. Maureen Sloan, teacher-in-charge, said that about 400 students at the 2,500-student high school speak virtually no English. The school draws from areas affected since 1965 by increased immigration.

"Things would be a lot easier if the students all spoke one foreign language, the way they do in some Chinese or Puerto Rican areas," said Mrs. Sloan. "Because there are so many different languages and backgrounds, we decided to try the individual approach."

Because there is such a demand for the program at the school, students considered for it must not be transient. The program, which enrolls a student for a year, also takes into consideration attendance records and whether the student is a disciplinary problem.

"We are trying to cushion students from cultural shock," said Mrs. Sloan. "We figure that if we can get the family to speak English, we can get the student to speak it."

A typical student enrolled in the program is Nilsa Lugo, 15. A high school freshman, she spent most of her life in Villalba, Puerto Rico, before coming to the city last year.

Living in a three-room apartment with her mother, grandmother, cousin and two younger sisters, Nilsa said that she likes the program because she is with her family while she is learning.

Her teacher, Robert Villanella, said that Nilsa attends bilingual classes at John Jay. However, after two years of bilingual classes, she will be expected to move into regular English-speaking classes. Thus, the program helps her prepare for the transition.

The weekly lessons, emphasize repetition of dialogue used in practical, everyday situations. "This way, it is hoped that family members will be able immediately to use the English they learn and thus be encouraged to speak the language.

"You really begin to see the people you teach as a family unit," Villanella said. "Before long you begin to take a real interest in the family members."

Mrs. Sloan credits the bond between teachers and families as helping to make the program a success. She noted, "The program is so much more than teaching. Everyone comes away from it with a mutual respect for the others."

THE SILENT WAY

(In the last issue of the Newsletter, Jenny Rearden talked about the CL approach to language learning/teaching developed by Dr. Charles Curran. We also mentioned other approaches to language teaching such as that of Lazanov and the "Silent Way" of Dr. Caleb Gattegno, and there was an in-depth article on Robert Allen's "Sector Analysis" especially as it was used in the teaching of writing. In this issue, both Earl Stevick and LINC are quoted as having been greatly influenced by the Silent Way and so it seems appropriate that something be written about it. In 1973 I wrote a short article for the NY TESOL Newsletter (Idiom) to which Dr. Gattegno responded. This article takes note of that response and other more recent remarks about the Silent Way. The Editor.)

Earl Stevick says it has influenced him, Charles Blatchford says his teaching has been changed by it, the LINC people have put much of it into practice, and at the recent TESOL Convention in New York City, teachers thronged to the workshops of Dr. Gattegno as he demonstrated and talked about his Silent Way of teaching.

The Silent Way is not a new idea. The philosophy of the Silent Way, as proposed by Dr. Gattegno, has been around for 22 years, according to Shelley Kuo, the director of the Gattegno Language Schools. Originally, it was used as a math teaching device, but in the past few years it has been "discovered by language teachers, and is now widely touted as a method or approach for the teaching of reading and language." Elements of the Silent Way have always been present in our traditional approaches. For example, teachers and student teachers have been admonished for years to reduce their own speaking time and give more opportunity for the student to speak.

To quote the Silent Way materials, "as a general technique, the Silent Way is a way of teaching that liberates students systematically." It is an attempt to approach language learning by having the learner acquire as a primary step in language learning, a "feeling" for language. It aims at putting the learner into a situation where he is challenged to use his powers of thinking and his ability to analyze and experiment; it demands that students test hypotheses about the languages he is learning, taking advantage of his/her knowledge and experience with language. Dr. Gattegno says, "When I teach a language, that language remains a secondary preoccupation of mine although it is the prime concern of the students. My function as a teacher is to do all I can to make students find for themselves the powers required to be successful in the new language as they are in their native language. Since one is free to use the mastered language for expression of emotions, feelings, ideas, perceptions and so on, teachers have to aim at a similar freedom in the new language. Clearly there is too much to learn for any student and teachers have to know what comes first and when to move to the next assignment. In my perception of the task, from the start and as soon as sufficient mastery is attained in the utterance of say twenty or so words, the student must prove capable of being on top of the four demands of spoken speech: correct sounds and correct stress in each word, a feel for which words run together in each statement or phrasing, and how intonation generates the melody of the language as natives express it."[2]

The syllabus or lessons of a Silent Way language course, are basically linguistically determined and sequenced. The difference is that the demand on the student to perform is not continuously stimulated by oral models given by the teacher. Instead the stimulus is 'silent'. The teacher manipulates a set of colored rods—rectangular wooden blocks of various lengths and colors (rather like children's building blocks), putting them into different arrangements of color and length which stimulate the learners to make on their own, statements about them: their size, color, shape, and their relationships to each other, in an ever more complex set of patterns and sentences. The only oral model has been given, once, by the teacher as s/he first arranges the rods. Some meaning comes from the learners perceptions of the situations as they are demonstrated by the teacher. This kind of stimulus avoids the need for translation into the learners language. The basic vocabulary has been provided and the students, collectively, may try to ask or describe to the teacher what has been 'arranged' with the rods. Collectively, because often the whole class participates in putting together the correct sentence while the teacher, not speaking, indicates approval or disapproval of form, vocabulary, pronunciation, and melody. Without the oral model supplied for him again and again, the student is forced to pay attention to any initial utterances by the teacher and those of his fellow learners, to understand the situation or stimulus as presented by the arrangement of the rods, and to respond in a linguistically correct way. The teacher may occasionally point to a "sound chart" (a color-coded chart of letter/symbols or words which reflect the basic vowels and consonants in the language and the basic vocabulary used in the first lessons), to reinforce or to reestablish the correct pronunciation. Since one color represents one sound on the charts, pointing from one letter or combination of letters to another can evoke a string of sounds or words for the learner to work on. The systematic use of colors on the word charts permits the language to be handled phonetically without any modification of the actual orthography. The charts are used in the very first lessons. Miss Kuo states that "it starts by making the students conscious of the amount of linguistic equipment they already have so that they can concentrate on what they do not already know. Many languages require only a few sounds that the students are not familiar with, so the first few lessons focus on these. Having given the students the experience of sounding like native speakers in this very restricted area, the way has been cleared to acquire the elements of a functional vocabulary and, through that, an extended vocabulary."[3]

After the student has attained fluency with the restricted vocabulary used in the first lessons he is then stimulated to oral production by means of the teacher's pointing to words and symbols on the charts and then by writing on paper.

Reading also accompanies the lesson with emphasis on the melody of the language—the stress and intonation patterns. This emphasis, as with the initial lessons on pronunciation, is to promote, first, the "feeling" for the language—to build a confidence in being able to speak it "naturally." And secondly, to allay the fear of "saying it wrong" which is often the reason why students, however successful in class, often stumble and remain silent outside of class.

The techniques used in the Silent Way are basically oral-aural mechanical substitution and stimulus-response drills though the stimulus is visual rather than oral. The sequencing of materials (patterns) is in general linguistically based much as most ESL texts are today.

So what's new—other than the "special" materials—charts and rods—and the fact that the teacher is silent

Continued on page 20

THE SILENT WAY

Continued from page 13

and the student is forced, allowed, finally, to have the entire lesson time at his command, to speak?

As Dr. Gattegno puts it, the thing which he is striving to do is to build in the student, at the very beginning, a "confidence" that what he is saying is right. "The inner criterion of rightness . . . is the rock bottom on which the future acquisition will stand, increasing the sense of freedom that motivates learners and creates the joy which accompanies good performance."[2]

Blatchford states that his 'romance' with the Silent Way results from his recognition of the humaneness of the approach. He states that it has affected his approach to teacher training, resulting in his desire to provide, along with the methodology, the techniques of language teaching, "encouragement, self-reliance, and support"—the very things potential teachers will need "in the classroom they will be guiding."[1]

After participating in a Silent Way experience, it was apparent that certain basic facts stood out as important for the language teacher. *First*, the student is immediately and almost totally responsible for the language learning situation. That is, his mistakes provide the teacher with direction for the succeeding lessons, his successes determine how quickly he moves on to the next step, and the speaking is entirely his responsibility. *Second*, the language of the classroom is entirely, from the first instant, the target language. The students' language(s) are never used. His intelligence, his desire to learn, his compulsion to "try" the new words, sentences, patterns, language, is drawn upon instead. *Third*, after an initial anxiety, supported by long years of varying successes and failures in classrooms and especially foreign language classrooms, Silent Way students relax in the interaction between themselves as they learn to stimulate, encourage, and reinforce each other—respond to each other in a real, "thinking", meaningful way, rather than merely responding to the teacher. The "feel" for the language becomes part of the learning and with the responsibility for speaking comes not only the challenge to do so but the feeling that one *can*.

1. Charles Blatchford. "My Silent Way Experience—One Model for Training Teachers and Students" (Paper given at TESOL Convention, March 5, 1976, New York City).

2. Caleb Gattegno. "Some Remarks and Additions on 'The Silent Way: A Look at Language Teaching' ", *Idiom*, 4:2, Winter 1974.

3. Caleb Gattegno. *Teaching Foreign Language in Schools the Silent Way*. New York: Educational Solutions, 1963.

4. John Haskell. "The Silent Way: A New Look at Language Teaching", *Idiom*, 4:1, Fall, 1973.

5. Shelley Kuo. "Learning Chinese by the 'Silent Way' " (Mimeographed paper printed by Educational Solutions.)

SOAP OPERA, etc.

Continued from page 17

tures, which, when given a second look, fit perfectly clean, parallel language matrices of the sort that strike joy into the hearts of applied linguists. Rarely does the information possessed by a real, live class contain such symmetry. Go ahead and use it anyway. Venture into the real information of the students' experience. Express comparable facts with structural similarity if that's what they need. Teach them how to use *except for, however, on the other hand,* for those facts which differ. Some individuals might bring such differing backgrounds that their information wouldn't fit into the report. Perhaps such persons could play the role of group recorder and organizer of the written report, master of ceremonies of the oral report.

In other situations, individuals may become possessors of important bits of information as part of the task. One might ask a group to draw a floor plan of the first floor of the school library. The first step would be to send them off in pairs with measuring tapes and note pads, each pair to obtain the necessary data of a particular area of the floor.

Design a group task. Try it with your class. Write and tell us how it worked.

Other group activities have been outlined in "Practicum," in the MATSOL Newsletter, Vol. 4, No. 1, and in "Lessons that Work," in the IDIOM of NYS ESOL BEA, Vol. 6, No. 1.

TN. Vol. II NO. 2 April 1976

Reprinted From The *CATESOL Newsletter* Vol. 7, No. 4, Jan. 76

TEACHING GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES IN SITUATIONAL CONTEXTS

Suzanne Griffin
EL Center, U of S.F.

Below is a list used as a reference point from which to write lesson plans for usage and grammar classes. Many of the ideas lend themselves well to skits and role-playing. It was first presented at rap session at TESOL 1975, then revised and presented at the CATESOL Convention in 1975. It is presented here in its revised form.

GRAMMAR POINT	SITUATION
Imperative verb forms Present continuous tense	Make a cake using a boxed cake mix.
Locative prepositions Imperative verb forms Present tense Non-referential *it*	Direct another person to some part of the city using a map.
Future tense	Discuss plans for a trip, vacation, the weekend, etc.
Simple past tense *(What did you do - - - -?)*	Discuss a past vacation, weekend, etc.
any, some, one(s) indirect obj.	Role play a shopping trip to buy gifts.
any, some, one(s), another, the other	Role play shopping in a supermarket.
be (present tense) possessive adjectives	Answer information questions: name, address, etc.
be - locative prepositions	Tell someone where to find things in your kitchen.
have/has - possessive adjectives	Tell other students about your family.
Present perfect tense	Fill out a medical history form (adapted)
Present perfect progressive	Role play a medical interview—particularly on a visit to a new doctor.
Non-referential *it*	Make a daily weather report.
Habitual present *at, between, from - to*	Report daily schedules (of people in the class, buses in the city, airlines, trains, etc.)
Non-referential *it* clauses subordinated by *because*	Relate clothes to weather in a role playing situation (i.e. mother and child on a rainy day).
like + Noun/like to + Verb want + Noun/want to + Verb too + adjective/adjective + enough	Role play a shopping trip to buy clothes.
want to - have to - to - need to - Verb	Mail a package at the post office—insure it.
would like - Object - Verb (sentence and question patterns)	Invite someone to a party—make a phone call or write an invitation.
can, must, should, ought to	Explain rules and regulations to someone—i.e. school rules, doctor's instructions to a sick patient.
about to - Verb (- Noun)	Describe a sports event in progress. Point out an airplane about to land.
have to (in conditional clauses) if . . . . Subject *will have to* . . .	Give a new customer the information he needs to establish his account with Gas Co. or Bell Telephone.
Past conditional and past perfect tenses	Report a historical event and discuss the conditions under which a different outcome *might have resulted.*
Present Perfect tense - Active and Passive Voice in contrast	React to the burglary of your apartment—in the presence of another person upon initial discovery (Active Voice) —in making a police report (Passive Voice)
still, already, yet	1. Call someone who has placed a classified ad to advertise a job or something for sale (i.e. a car or furniture). 2. Report on the progress of your shopping trip to a companion.
used to	Interview someone about— a. Past employment b. Cuisine and dining customs in their country.

IT WORKS!

by Darlene Larson

IDIOMS AND AUXILIARIES

We are grateful to Phyllis Van Horn of the University of Idaho in Moscow and Virginia Heringer of the University of Southern California in Los Angeles for sharing with us some classroom practices that they have found successful. Write and let us know how well they work for you, and what adaptations you made to make them fit your class.

Phyllis was looking for a way around the problem of providing a situation that would allow students free practice of idioms they had been learning and at the same time allow the teacher some possibility of evaluating usage and comprehension. Sources of idioms are:

Idiom Drills, George McCallum (Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970)

Idioms in Action, George Reeves (Newbury House, 1974)

The Key to English: Two-Word Verbs (Collier-Macmillan, 1964)

Essential Idioms in English, Robert J. Dixson (Regents Publishing Co., 1972),

Handbook of American Idioms and Idiomatic Usage, Harold C. Whitford and Robert J. Dixson (Regents Publishing Co., 1973).

First, a technique to see if students have an understanding of how the idiom should be used. Make a series of sentences, each of which contains one idiom used correctly or incorrectly. Read it aloud and have the students indicate whether the idiom is correct or not by marking an "X" for incorrect or a "C" for correct. Test items might include:

1. Can you go to the store with me *just as soon*?*

2. It's windy, so I have to *brush up on** my hair.

3. Jean's staying with her sister *for the time being.*

Phyllis recommends that the test items be grammatically correct with only the meaning of the idiom in question. Each sentence is graded on a scale of one point per item.

Her second suggestion assesses whether or not the students can produce the idiom correctly when assisted with both meaning and a key word. The teacher first reads a sentence containing the definition of an idiom, then isolates the definition and reads a key word from the idiom. The key word is usually the one which receives the primary stress in normal spoken usage. The student writes only the complete idiom, changing number, person or tense to agree with the content of the sentence. All of the sentences are related contextually. Ex:

1. I decided to use the good weather for my benefit and go for a walk. Use for my benefit . . . advantage. (The students would then write, "take advantage of.")

2. My roommate disapproved of my idea. Disapproved of . . . view. (The students would write, "took a dim view of.")

These items may be graded on a three-point scale: one point for the accuracy of the idiom, one for agreement of tense, number and person, and one for the correct inclusion of articles and particles.

Her third technique assesses the oral production of the idioms being studied. She recommends taping a conversation in which the student is given cards with six unrelated idioms written in the root form. The student's card might read:

sooner or later
go too far
have someone over
make sense
as for
find out

The teacher presents questions in conversational style and the student responds, including one of the idioms in his answer. The teacher might say, "Jack's been in school for two years with no vacation. Now he wants to take a course during the winter break. What about that?"

Replies could be, "Sooner or later he'll have a vacation," or "He's going too far!" or "I'll have him over during the break," or "That makes sense. He'll be able to graduate sooner."

The teacher has six questions or statements similar to the example, and the student is free to use any one of the six idioms on his card in his answer. Evaluation of the student's tape is made in a private auditing session using three scales of five points each: usage of the idiom, pronunciation of the idiom, and the appropriateness of the response to the question. She suggests the desirability of having two people audit this part, rate it independently, and average the scores.

(This last technique of giving partial information on cards reminds me of the Hines strategy in role playing—reported in the *IDIOM* of NYS ESOL BEA, Vol. 5, No. 2, page 3, "Lessons that Work," and reprinted in the *TESOL NEWSLETTER*, Vol. IX, No. 3, p. 9.—It would be interesting to incorporate previously studied idioms into "Lines to Choose From" role play cards and see whether students select them or not.)

* * *

Virginia is outlining a technique she uses in which she insists on the use of modals, but believes the exercise is much closer to conversational practices that could take place in reality than other exercises suggested in texts and grammars. Since students can express possibility and probability well with adverbial constructions, it is necessary to ask them to eliminate the adverbs this time around and use, instead, the modals of possibility and probability, *can, could, may, might*, and *must.*

The exercise is essentially a set of puzzles in which students speculate on the possible occupation of a person, basing their guesses on clues given by the teacher. The clues are arranged in such a way that the students come closer to the correct answer as they progress through them, finally arriving at the one that *must be* correct. Preparation for the exercise means arranging sets of clues from general to specific. This progression also provides a clue to the modal to choose for the response, matching the modals that indicate more certainty with "guesses" that are based on more specifics.

The teacher, or another student, reads three clues one at a time. After each clue students are asked to guess what kind of work the person does, forming their guesses not into questions, but into statements containing one of the modals of possibility or probability.

EXAMPLE A

Clue 1: Mr. Smith usually sits at a desk while he is working.

Response: He might be a teacher/an executive/a manager/an accountant.

Clue 2: He uses pencils and straightedges and large sheets of paper.

Response: He could be an engineer/an architect/a designer/a draftsman.

Clue 3: Occasionally he visits construction sites where bridges and roads are being built.

Response: He must be an engineer.

Virginia comments that *Example B* usually brings up some discussion of sex-typing in jobs. I would think that lots of discussion could be generated about similarities and differences in

Cont'd on page 16

NS
esolu-
y for
to be
ssem-
Mem-
ntent
llow-

Be it
mbly

sig-
s of

l by
Com-
be-
This
ived

air-
em-
era-
ual

res-
ary
ock

IT WORKS:

Cont'd from page 15

job training and education requirements, conditions, and performance. She also mentions that students are sure to give answers using adverbs instead of modals and this provides a good opportunity to discuss the similarity in meaning.

If students are really "into" discussing the pros and cons of one guess over another, I believe Virginia's follow-up suggestion should be a winner. She mentions that after clue #2, the conditional and negatives are appropriate. A possible response in Example A: Mr. Smith couldn't be an accountant. If he were, he might use pencils and big sheets of paper, but he wouldn't need straight edges. And in B: Mary couldn't be a butcher. If she were, she might wear a white coat, but she wouldn't need to attend school for many years learning how to do her job.

Once you've built up a file of clues and the students are well-versed in vocabulary and details of many occupations, this should be an excellent small group activity. Virginia sugguests that advanced students can probably make up puzzles themselves to give to each other.

* * *

Teachers of beginning classes ar probably wondering how they'll ev get their students to the point wher they could participate in these sug gestions. I've found that an impor tant first step into modals is a con trast with *to be*. Put an item in th gag and close the bag (before class) or select an object whose use or iden tification *isn't* immediately discern able. Ask: What is it? Require response like: I don't know, but i could be/might be a _____ Or,

Have one student hide something He's the only one who knows wher it is. 1.) Other students suggest t each other (not to the knower) tha the object might be/could be unde the _____, in the _____, on the _____ 2.) As they discuss among themselve where it might be or could be, the check from time to time with the per son who knows. When addressing th knower, switch to the question form and *be*, i.e., Is it under the _____? I it behind the _____? 3.) After a few alternatives have been eliminated an they're beginning to predict with more certainty, switch to: It must be in the _____.

Thanks again to Phyllis Van Horn and Virginia Heringer for sharing their ideas that work.

From Repetition to Reality: Some Measurable Steps

By Darlene Larson
New York University

I want to share with you some of the notions I've been kicking around about how we can chart a more systematic course for our students for moving them from a sketchy knowledge of English to "communicative competence," the word of the day.

I believe that in order to plan courses, write materials, teach and test and assess progress—in order to tell students about what they are going to learn and then discuss with them how they think they are doing—in order to move them one step at a time to free use of the language, we have to rethink, redo, re-write our entire repertoire of classroom procedures. I don't pretend to have come close to such a goal, to have a thorough understanding of what is to be discarded, nor to have identified with certainty all of the elements that should be added. There is much to be discarded—much to be replaced—and much to be devised afresh.

As ESL teachers, we have been listening for years to the anthropologists, the sociologists, the psychologists, the multiculturalists, the cross-culturalists, the self-awareness groups, the group interaction groups, the grammarians, the speech correctionists, the drama coaches and the lady next door. I think TESOL, on the whole, shares its podium with a wider range of specialists than any other group. Not only do we share the podium, but we listen!

We are aware of the fact and we agree that language learning is far more than pronouncing a string of phonemes. We believe that it is risk-taking behavior.

As teachers, we do not address a classroom filled with mechanisms capable of sound production. We are quite conscious of the fact that all of the points and manners of articulation are housed in a human being who brings to class his or her ego, age, upbringing, pride, desires, accomplishments, failures, fears, sex-appeal, quirks, tics, nerves, worry beads and dictionaries—as well as Pavlov's dog's hunger and thirst.

Need for Efficient Instruction

But the pressure is on us. Second language learning is no longer a pastime of the wealthy that can be carried

Continued on Page 17

REPETITION TO REALITY

Continued from Page 15

out over decades, nurtured with private specialists and trips to far-away lands where the culture can be assimilated as well as the sounds—all done in relaxation and luxury. No, not at all. Second language learning is more likely a necessity for survival. Efficiency of instruction has never been more needed than it is now.

The need is felt not only in second language programs, but our entire system of public education is awakening to the fact that it must become more accountable, more precise, more responsive to individual needs, more articulate about what it can do. Program planners long for the day when improved tools of assessment will diagnose a child's needs and improved systems of scheduling will provide immediately, modules of instruction precisely attending to those needs. Students will master these bits of knowledge at their own speed and move on to the next challenge for which they have been properly readied.

There are numerous fears about, flaws in, and arguments against this proposed wave of educational change. Whether in the end the change be miniscule or major, I for one, would like to see such change conceived, proposed, and decided BY CLASSROOM TEACHERS.

Structure Versus Task

Many are accustomed to thinking of language learning as a progression of steps outlined in terms of structures. Until now, somehow, a certain structure has belonged in the advanced course while others are always found on page 1 of book 1.

Yet, when the right conditions are present, every structure is easy! I have become more and more convinced that it is not the structure that determines difficulty as often as it is the task. The language task, the communication task, the classroom task. It is to what teachers have students do with these structures that we must give our attention.

Let us adhere to the old goals of helping students meet success in language learning situations, of avoiding failure situations, and of considering students errors as teacher errors. However, let us demand that an equally careful progression be applied to the kind of language task—rather than to the kind of drill and let us not become ensnared in the linguist's categorization of structural complexities.

The Difficulties

My efforts to outline a progression of difficulty of language tasks seem forever thwarted for any number of reasons. A few of them follow:

A. The difficulty of language tasks doesn't seem to advance in a linear progression.

After utterance 1 in hour 1, there can never again be a single focus. About five years ago, I scrapped the whole idea of "review." It is never a goal of a teaching segment, and I have tried to remove it from my pedagogical vocabulary. Instead, once I have presented an item, I attempt to incorporate that item continually, or at least regularly, into all future lessons.

By merely attending to meaning, structure, and pronunciation, there is at least a triple focus for any lesson. Usually a teacher has a number of other goals in mind in addition to these three and they are all operating at the same time if the language task has any transferability to reality. In fact, it is precisely when a number of aspects are all alive and operating at the same time that language lessons become real.

A second notion under "never a single focus" is my doubt that we could ever list all of the aspects of a communication task, let alone program them into a progression of difficulty.

B. One cannot separate the language performance expected of students from the amount of assistance given by teachers.

Have you ever participated in a faculty meeting in which the level 5 teacher expresses how well her students are finally doing in writing paragraphs—whereupon the level 2 teacher sniffs that her students have been writing paragraphs for 6 weeks. That's right, the students are performing the same task. But on investigation, the level 2 students are doing it with a complete model from which to write and are merely changing the singular model to a plural form. The level 5 students are producing their paragraphs with only a choice of topics as assistance. That's what I mean when I say that we cannot assess the difficulty of a language task until we know what assistance the students have been given. And this leads to item C.

C. Smaller progressions of difficulty exist within larger ones.

Requiring the performance of the same task, but giving less assistance in smaller amounts can provide a whole series of steps, each one of which contributes to the student's ability to perform a singular task.

D. Some elements of language behavior seem better learned if they are ever-present from hour one, day one and are learned in conditions with transferability to reality.

Classroom Arrangement

Create in the classroom a physical setting that permits eye contact. Rigid rows make students look at the backs of other students' heads. Even native speakers rarely feel the desire to communicate with the back of the heads in front of them. Why should we expect genuine communication to take place in this situation with speakers of English as a second language?

Pronunciation—Transfer to Reality

I'm talking about normal speed, intonation and pronunciation as opposed to word-by-word production. Word-by-word production, by the way, is an achievement. And, it's our trap. We feel gratified when the student finally gets there. . . as does he. . . and we rejoice in his accomplishment with him. When students who didn't know the structure on entering the class, know what to say at the end of class, it's worth celebrating. But you're celebrating a hit to third. He's not home yet. And if you don't get to home plate, you never score a run. Oh, sure, you pile up statistics: he attended class. He satisfactorily participated in the exercises. But you don't even get one tally towards winning the game. Even when you're not around, he'll be listening for all of those words that he knows so well and can line up like little tin soldiers. And he'll never hear them. Oral language doesn't occur in that form. Your students will feel discouraged and gradually come to believe either that everyone speaks sloppy English but his teacher—or that he just can't learn.

One more step is needed in the classroom. On hearing a student perform with every word correct and in the right place, I often hear myself rejoicing with the student with something like: "Good for you. You've got every word correct. Now, here's the way you say it," and I am convinced more and more here is the place where I teach pronunciation. Never, never in a separate time-slot called, "Pronunciation," but rather, at the end of a communication task with, "Now, here's the way you say it."

Classroom Cues

Instead of attempting to label the kinds of drills one does, I prefer to think in terms of the cue and the expected behavior. And I make a further distinction between an expected behavior being a response to language as opposed to those occasions in which the expected behavior will be an initiation of language.

When I am expecting the students to respond to language, to my way of thinking, the one and only acceptable

Continued on Next Page

REPETITION TO REALITY

Continued from Page 17

kind of cue is one that a native speaker would respond to with the same structure that I'm expecting the student to use. There is, however, one exception to this rule.

The Exception

The one exception is repetition. Repetition does not transfer to reality. Repetition is mechanical and non-communicative. It can be deadly dull or devilishly difficult. If repetition is also the place where, with backward build-up, the student is supported until he can repeat at normal speed, intonation and pronunciation, then it is devilishly difficult and that's when it's worth doing.

That's the starter—and it is the only mechanical cue that I currently allow myself to use. Once I know that the students can produce the utterance, I force myself to elicit it from them subsequently with the same kinds of cues that would elicit it from me.

Which Fit

It's easy to decide which exercises fit this category.

The question to ask is: Would a native speaker ever, on hearing X, respond with Y? If the answer to this question is, "Yes," then this X and Y sequence is worth taking class time to practice.

This criterion eliminates forever any more of the "long answers" expected as responses to yes/no questions.

There is no time for this kind of artificial code manipulation in the classroom. Let's not force any more speakers and writers to make the case against mechanical exercises. It has long been made. We see their point and agree with it. I am all for declaring an end to such a waste of classroom time forever. It prepares the students for no real life situation that I can imagine.

Upon applying my "reality test," I rarely have any trouble deciding whether or not a certain cue is justifiable. And if it doesn't meet this standard, it goes.

Change of Tense

It is true that native speakers do have conversations that do little more than change tenses. What are the cues in these conversations that cause the change of tense to happen? Employ the same ones in the classroom in order to signal students that they need to switch forms.

I have a feeling that all of the "Do you. . . "questions are asked together somewhere in the second unit. All of the "How long've you been doing" questions are asked togther somewhere in the 14th unit, but they are never put together systematically. It is often in the mix of questions that native speakers find the cues that signal a change of tense. Our students need this kind of practice incorporated systematically into their classroom exercises.

Initiating Language

First, we must remember that this is, after all, an unreal exercise. We are deciding that they should initiate language. One initiates language when one feels the need—not when one is told to say something. Furthermore, on those rare occasions when one is requested to say something, there is often at least a momentary block of all initiating processes, and one wonders if he'll ever be able to utter a sound again, let alone say something. Thus, telling students to ask something, describe something, say something is an unreal command in itself, and, furthermore, a stifling one.

So the teacher attempts to program into the students some reason for them to ask questions. Unreal cues have to be allowed at first. Sometimes they are merely repetition. Sometimes they consist of cue cards or symbols for certain wh-questions. All of this is preparation, one hopes, for giving them the appropriate question forms to put into use when and if they should ever want to. But this is not enough. One can never be sure that students will bridge the gap—on their own—from unreal conditions to real conditions.

Task Oriented Exercises

Thus, one step closer to reality is putting them into some kind of situation in which they will need to seek information or describe something or explain something or discuss something. Task-oriented exercises seem to be the most useful ones of which I know. In order to complete the task, the students will have to employ language—initiate language.

If you send them out of the classroom to get information, the chances are that you will have no real check on whether or not they do, in fact, employ information seeking language forms. Thus, a beneficial follow-up in the classroom would provide a way for the students to ask each other the questions that supposedly it had been necessary for them to address to someone else.

There is no way that students can jump into this kind of language initiation task on the first day. Some unnatural kinds of cues have to be used to prepare them for uttering these questions. Repetition is certainly the first step. The important consideration in the steps that follow is that we *be aware* of the fact that our strategies are still contrived. When one uses a cue that does not transfer to reality, the important thing is to be aware of the implications of that non-transferability.

Changing Cues

And the last thing I have to say regarding cues is that *in all cases*, when expecting the students to switch from one structure to another, there must be an accompanying change in the cues. In fact, it is this change in the real world that should cue the change of the structure in the student. When this criterian isn't met, students are merely mouthing sounds in different patterns.

Eventually one moves away from speaking about observable objects. *Adverbs of time, and time expressions* and *tenses of questions* then become the cues for changing the structure of the response.

Setting the conditions for communication to take place is part of our new job description. I have sometimes felt that as a language teacher, I am, in fact, a conditions engineer. As such, my challenge is to design conditions and manipulate them in such a way that students would recognize the matching of conditions and structures, would learn to change structures as I changed conditions and would eventually recognize analogous changes in conditions in their lives and employ those English structures even when I wasn't there.

So the question was/is: How would I manipulate classroom conditions in order for this transfer to take place? One of my primary concerns has been in assuring the best possible chances for a transfer to reality to occur. Another has been in identifying kinds of language tasks.

Basic Language Tasks

One of the seemingly most basic communication tasks with direct transferability to reality is that of questions and answers. However, questioning and answering can increase in difficulty endlessly. Thus, what are some elements that increase the difficulty of question/answer tasks?

Decrease in assistance. The difficulty of any step can be increased a second time around by removing the former props, rods, realia, pictures, whatever. Change the subject, give a new set of realia and instruct the students to apply the same questions and answers.

Questions and answers, but in more than one structure.

After a structure is presented indi-

Continued on Page 20

REPETITION TO REALITY

Continued from Page 18

visually, it is best learned when incorporated systematically into subsequent lessons. At first this combining happens purposefully on the part of the teacher. At times, one even says to oneself, "I've asked Ben four questions in the present tense. The next time I come to him, I'll have to try a past tense question."

Despite my urging systematic combinations of structures, I must state that *I do not* have in mind the services of an enthusiastic mathematical linguist running to his computer this afternoon to produce a print-out of all the possible combinations of structures. It is neither necessary nor desirable to practice all of the previously acquired structures in every communication task. There is nothing worse than lessons which were designed to "get everything in that we've studied."

Which ones go where and in what combinations can only be determined by employing the standards of judgment and choice of structure that native speakers would use when performing that task.

Next Step

A new step of difficulty is added when conditions are set and language is employed regarding them *without* the conscious effort to alternate structures regularly. This might be referred to as a random integration of taught structures. Forget whether or not Ben has had four opportunities to answer in the present tense. By now he should be familiar enough with it to handle it with success anytime he meets it. If it's been studied in class—at first individually, then in combinations—it should then occur as it would in a conversation with native speakers.

Textbook organization is another trap that we fall into. Authors have to divide the language into some kind of identifiable units and present these units in some organized way. But the students don't meet the language in these units at any other time. We have to mix the units—integrate the structures to get the language back to reality. Our mistake is that we now and then allow ourselves to think that we have "finished a unit." No unit is ever finished. Once taught, it must be incorporated into future lessons as often as it is meaningfully and naturally possible.

Tasks That We Know of but Haven't Incorporated into a Syllabus:

1. Significant contributions are being made in the identification of gestures, use of space, paralanguage in general which accompanies linguistic features. This paralanguage is being described in kind as well as occurrence. Thus, it can be incorporated into communication tasks systematically—it needs to be, as yet, it hasn't been.

2. A variety of materials need to be developed for each strategy. Teacher-made materials are often the most relevant. But teachers cannot write every lesson. We need new kinds of materials. We don't need whole courses and 100 volume series. We need materials to compliment language tasks instead of materials to compliment linguistic descriptions of structures.

3. Question-answer tasks involving three speakers. Incorporating two speakers and pronoun replacement in the second utterance has led to an interesting kind of tasks.

We've never approached this kind of language instruction in an organized way. We've hoped and prayed and crossed our fingers that somehow, someday, students would "pick it up along the way," but we didn't know how nor when nor where.

I think we do know how. Where, is in the classroom. And when? is just as soon as we decide to "get it together."

TN Vol I NO. 1 Feb. 1976

AN IDEA THAT WORKS

by Sharon Thiess

THE SENSES

Objective: To develop the students descriptive vocabulary through sense activities.

1. *Taste*—blindfold a student, give him an unusual food to taste and ask him to describe it.

2. *Sight*—blindfold a student and have him describe the feeling of an object he's touched.

3. *Smell*—describe the following odors; gasoline, a hospital, stables, cookies baking, a Christmas tree, a gymnasium.

4. *Touch*—put various objects in a closed bag and have them search for one (stone, sponge, clay, etc)

5. *Hearing*—blindfold students, drop objects and ask them to guess what you dropped.

Have students close their eyes and listen, then tell what kinds of sounds they hear (this is a good outside activity)

6. Hold up pictures of objects and have them tell what senses are involved.

7. Have them write a sentence using all the senses.

Purposes: stimulates creative thinking, encourages oral response, familiarize students with common objects, awareness of the role our senses play.

TN Vol X No. 2 April 1976

IT WORKS!

The TESOL NEWSLETTER is happy to announce that space will be reserved in this and all future issues for the sharing of practical classroom ideas. Our first idea, column, contribution, appears below and comes from Darlene Larson, who will coordinate the column. All contributions, manuscripts, and ideas should be forwarded to her at The American Language Institute, #1 Washington Square North, New York, NY 10003. She'll be looking for techniques and methods that are appropriate for different aged students and different types of programs. Reprints of good ideas in affiliate newsletters will be considered, but original manuscripts are especially welcome. We don't want to limit possibilities, but ideas that lead to communicative competence and classroom procedures that allow student initiative will certainly be given priority.—The Editor.

ONE LUMP OR TWO?

With our current awareness of how alienating the teacher/student, knower/learner roles can be, our realization that the classroom is an "unreal reality," and our ever-present goal of overcoming these major drawbacks to effective language learning, I'd like to begin this first classroom ideas column in the TESOL NEWSLETTER by encouraging teachers of adults to include refreshments in class from time to time. They may be as elaborate as Wilga Rivers Punch or Virginia Allen Dip, or they may be as simple as apple cider and Ritz crackers. They can be planned in advance or can appear unannounced. Students can be involved in planning a spread that covers all nations (and all of the table space in the room), or the event can be completely teacher-planned and initiated. Another class can be invited, or the fun can be confined to the usual group of students.

In other words, there's no formula as to just how it's supposed to work. The point is that if you're after student-initiated conversation, students involved in real communication, language practice in real situations, and student-directed lesson segments, including refreshments in adult classes every so often enables me to reach these goals.

An old favorite lesson of mine includes a recipe for Banana Nut Bread, the loaf pan, a measuring cup and spoons, and a sifter. I used to try to coordinate baking the bread at home, teaching the lesson in class and serving the bread after the lesson. But such coordination really isn't necessary. The bread can arrive in class by surprise a few weeks after the lesson. Students recall the ingredients and the directions for baking and talk about them naturally while they are tasting. Pronouncing measurements like "three-fourths of a cup" and "one-and-a-half teaspoons" is always difficult at first. A few weeks after the lesson students recall the parts that were difficult for them (sometimes different parts than I would select) and initiate attempts to try again.

Another student-initiated follow-up is when they begin to share recipes of their favorite dishes with one another. It's a short step from the lessons described above—and almost always takes place. They have the format of ingredients plus directions and that is enough to get them off to a usually successful attempt.

But it's not only recipes that we talk about when refreshments are served. A certain atmosphere develops that I relate to a party mood. We've often spent a good bit of time talking about what people do at parties. I make a careful effort not to ask adults to play games that they don't want to play. I'm just asking them to *talk about* party games . . . But as a rule, before much time goes by, they want to demonstrate as they talk. And that's just one step removed from playing the game—which, of course, is not at all ruled out if it's student-initiated.

If this kind of classroom discussion takes place a few times, it's quite easy to suggest that we plan a real party and invite the students and teacher from the next class. At an actual, planned event, we do, of course, ask people to participate in games and activities. Certain students are responsible for organizing the group to do something that they suggested a couple weeks earlier.

And once the "class next door" has been invited, we have host/guest roles (which can be extremely alienating in the real world but seem to bridge personality gaps in the classroom world.) It rarely fails that some adult who plays the student role with shyness and hesitancy can be found distributing paper cups and napkins before I had intended to serve refreshments! (The mind boggles at the thought of turning sociolinguists and cultural anthropologists loose at explaining this phenomenon. I have a few theories, but I'd prefer simply to share the idea and let someone else explain it.) Of course, if it's a first time, only time event, none of my guarantees hold. But if the group has participated in classes with refreshments now and then, I predict great success when adding "guests," too.

One final suggestion is to get the teacher next door involved, too. A colleague of mine at NYU prepared her students with all of the comments that fall off the tongues of guests when they enter New York apartments . . . "What a lovely place! Did you find it through an agent?" And the hosts were quite full of things like: "Oh, yes, I can never find anything by myself. Do you want his address?"

We also add the cultural information that New Yorkers always comment on how lovely the place is—even if it's as drab as an NYU classroom—and polite hostesses never let guests leave without protesting that they remain "just a little longer."

We used "Hello Dolly" as background music for a demonstration of Musical Chairs. Words were distributed for the asking, which they did, so we did. Lo and behold, there're things like, "It's so nice to have you back," and "You're lookin' swell," which students noted and used at a subsequent class with me when I entered the room.

When the time was up, we had to vacate the room in order that another class could come in. I consider it a measure of the effectiveness of the lesson that I found myself horribly uncomfortable with stepping back into my teacher role to announce that the time was up when one of my hostesses said, "Oh, please have another glass of punch. Call your husband and tell him you'll be a little late."

TN Vol I NO.2 April 1976

Improving Teacher-Made Language Tapes

Wayne B. Dickerson

Many teachers have discovered the advantages of making rather than purchasing language laboratory recordings. In general, teachers can achieve a better match between supplemental lab work and classroom instruction by using their own tapes instead of commercial tapes. In particular, tapes can be made to exactly the right length, to cover the most appropriate topics, to provide the desired emphasis with the best selection of exercises, and to accommodate innovation and individualization. These important advantages, however, may be lost if the materials are not expertly recorded. One of the major problems which mars many otherwise superb teacher-made tapes is that of *incorrect recording volume.* A few pointers in this area may help teachers get more satisfying results from their tape making.

In order to appreciate the importance of correct recording volume, it is necessary to understand what is meant by incorrect volume. Incorrect recording volume may be volume that it too high. This typically results in the distortion of words so that they are hard to understand. Incorrect recording volume may also be volume that is too low. The recordist's voice is not recorded loudly enough to cover the hissing noise that is inherent in every tape and in every recorder. Correct volume, then, is volume that is high enough to hide the hiss but low enough not to distort the sound.

The importance of staying within the safe recording zone lies ultimately in our concern for our students and their ability to learn from our recorded materials. If, on the one hand, the volume is too high, the tape will provide an irritation to the student. In self-defense, the student will tune out the content. If, on the other hand, the volume is too low, not only will it be difficult for the student to hear with ease, but the background hiss will induce listener fatigue which works against learning.

How can we be certain we are using the correct recording volume every time we record? Unfortunately, for nonprofessional machines, recorder manuals are not very explicit on this point. Because there is so much individual variation among recordists, manufacturers find it difficult to state explicitly how to use record-level meters. Some manufacturers try to solve the problem with an automatic volume control. The automatic volume control feature has its uses, but recording language drills is *not* among them. The recording mechanism is designed to turn up the record volume automatically when there is little or no incoming sound. When this happens, as during a silence left on the tape for student participation, the wide open volume puts a large amount of hiss on the tape—exactly what the recordist is trying to avoid. For language recording purposes, a manual volume control is far superior to the automatic volume control. With the manual volume control, any teacher can arrive at the correct recording level on any recorder by using a simple two-minute trial-run procedure.

The aim of the trial-run procedure is to record your voice at normal conversational loudness so that on one-third playback volume your recorded voice will sound as loud as your voice was when recording. To find the record-volume setting which will achieve this aim, the following steps should be followed.

Trial-Run Procedure

1. Position the microphone about 4–6 inches from your mouth. Set the record level to 1/2 full volume, then say into the mike what record setting you are using. For example, record: "I am recording at 1/2 full record level. Then record 10-15 seconds of material at normal conversational loudness.

2. Change the record-level setting to 2/3 full volume and record on the tape what volume you are using. Record an additional 10–15 seconds of material at normal conversational loudness.

3. Change the record-level setting to 3/4 full volume and announce what setting you are using. Record 10–15 seconds of material as before.

4. Rewind the tape to the beginning and set the playback volume to 1/3 full volume. Play the tape and note which setting yields the best volume, that is, the volume which is most like your normal conversational loudness.

5. If no setting gives satisfactory results, that is, not sufficiently loud volume, either bring the microphone closer to your mouth or change the microphone distance and speak somewhat louder (without straining). Then repeat the above steps.

6. When recording, use your trial-run findings: the record-level setting best suited to your voice loudness and mouth-microphone distance.

In summary, teacher-made tapes can surpass commercial tape in matching the growing and changing needs of an ESL program. Furthermore, the recording quality of such tapes can compete favorably with professionally-produced tapes, provided a few pointers are followed.*

*(For more information on recorders, microphones, tape, and techniques for recording language materials, see the forthcoming paperback book, *Tips on Taping, Language Recording in the Social Sciences*, by Wayne and Lonna Dickerson, published by William Carey Library, 305 Pasadena Avenue, South Pasadena, California 91030).

Vol I No 2 April 1976

USING THE NATIONAL OBSERVER IN THE ESOL CLASSROOM

By George W. Raney, Editor, *California Linguistic Reporter*

Charles Blatchford's article, "Newspapers: Vehicles for Teaching ESOL with a Cultural Focus," prompts me to share my experiences using the weekly *National Observer* as a companion "text" in an ESOL composition class. In my opinion, *NO* has many advantages over a daily newspaper:

a. The *Observer* functions more like *Time* or *Newsweek*, somewhat like a newspaper-magazine.

b. The format or structure of the paper remains constant.

c. News coverage of a developing event would change from day to day in a daily paper is summarized (usually by one author) in an in-depth article after sufficient data has been gathered.

d. Since the news of the previous week has had a chance to "jell," there are fewer attempts at sensationalism.

e. The *Observer* is easier to divide, carry around, and handle than a week's worth of newspapers.

NO is available via a newspaper-in-the-classroom program at reduced educational rates for a period ranging from three months to one year. The publication reaches one's mailbox each Monday and is an excellent teaching device for opening each week with a discussion of highlights concerning recent world events; it adds excitement, discovery, and surprise to the first ESOL composition class of the week. The content is constantly changing.

NO contains many features of a weekly news magazine like *Time* or *Newsweek*, e.g., in-depth feature articles on people in the news, copious illustrations, extensive advertising, readership feedback, editorial comment, and well-documented book and theater reviws. It seeks to add a personal touch to weekly news by reporting on how decisions in Washington and Moscow affect people in various areas of the U.S., often including foreign students studying in American schools, especially Arabs, Japanese, and Iranians. Final-page feature articles deal with a wide range of topics including psychology, sociology, linguistics, American government, English, journalism, consumer economics, etc.

The ESOL student receives on page one of each issue an exercise in English morphology and semantics, a photograph-clue illustrating the main idea of four major news items, a one- or two-sentence summary of all four articles, and the page reference where he can turn to find additional pictures and headlines. Oftentimes there is an accompanying cartoon providing a further hint at the main point of the article. All this information provides background material which an ESOL teacher can present slowly and carefully so as to draw a foreign student closer to the crux of a news item.

Concerning the accompanying cartoons mentioned above, those in the *Observer* deal for the most part with political events and often present caricatures depicting famous people in the news. Jib Fowles' article, "Ho Ho Ho: Cartoons in the Language Class" provides useful strategems for assisting foreign students in analyzing the often puzzling meanings of cartoons. Recognizing the figure in a caricature and discovering the incongruity or irony that would make an American laugh are cultural-insight skills that are quite difficult for a foreigner to acquire. In most instances clues must be provided from the front page of *NO*, or from the text of the accompanying news article within the body of the paper. The class should grasp the central idea of a news item before attempting a cartoon interpretation.

Jib Fowles' article clearly demonstrates the difficulty involved in explaining a one-panel drawing from *Look*, *The New Yorker*, or *Playboy*. Political or current-event cartoons present an even stronger challenge to the ESOL teacher and student. To comprehend why Uncle Sam is pictured attempting to crawl away from Indo-China, even though his toes are deeply rooted into the ground, a foreign student needs guidance. An eight ball falling from an ICBM and striking President Ford on the head, or Nixon pictured being trapped in the corner of a cell, demand a lot of background material carefully presented by an instructor who briefs himself on the news daily and keeps abreast of latest developments. As Blatchford states, in most cases one doesn't have much time to prepare for a discussion of Monday's newspaper ahead of time. Perhaps the best preparation would be skim reading an early-morning edition of a major American metropolitan newspaper daily. In any case, an ESOL teacher must be selective and not expect to cover all the nuances of each editorial or cartoon. He should not be embarressed upon discovering that his interpretation or knowledge in a particuar subject area is inaccurate or limited. Sometimes not knowing all the answers is an exercise in humility, providing a situation which allows the students to contribute information and generate discussion. For example, foreign students who are well read in history and current world issues can function as resource persons and assist the rest of the class. The teacher can take a back seat to those students who may have expertise in a particular subject area. Of course, one should make every effort to control the discussion and act as a moderator, sometimes a very difficult role to play and a real exercise in tact.

Another classroom problem with the *Observer* arises when caricatures depicting American leaders as clowns, birds, sharks (taken from the ad for the movie "Jaws"), animals, etc., upset foreign students who come from countries with a rigidly controlled press. Also, "what if" stories relating to government officials sometimes shock an ESOL class, e.g., a headline story speculating on what might happen if a leader were assassinated. The directness with which our high ranking officials are lampooned and criticized often upsets foreign students, and again the ESOL teacher is faced with a problem of promoting an understanding and appreciation of the wide range of freedom American news media have to criticize. The class may be even more upset when they see their own leaders lampooned in the American press, e.g., Ghandi, the Shah of Iran, etc. Anything the instructor can introduce early in the class to provide background material on American journalism policy will ease the transition to an American newspaper and the culture shock of viewing TV news here.

Even with the suggestions and examples offered in Fowles, in Blatchford, and in this article, on how to incorporate a newspaper into an ESOL class, an instructor will still have great trouble getting news material in American English across to students. The *Observer* is very difficult reading for a foreign student with a TOEFL score between 450 and 550. A great deal of dictionary work is required just to comprehend subheadings and picture captions, so the language difficulty threshold may prove to be a hard hurdle to cross for the first two or three issues. However, after the teacher presents the format or structure of the paper a few times in a clear and careful manner, the students will tend to fall into the Monday ritual of focusing on the lead article headline and closely analyzing the four bottom pictures until they grow more proficient at making educated guesses

Continued on page 24

Continued from page 23

concerning the meanings of words in context.

Lastly, the most difficult content for foreign students to comprehend in the *Observer* is a feature or in-depth article presenting extensive analysis and historical background on a complicated development or event, e.g., Watergate, the SLA, bicentennial stories, the political situation in India, etc. Such material could be carefully assigned to those students majoring in a field directly connected with the feature article, e.g., letting economics majors explain articles on cost of living, inflation, tax cuts, etc., or having political science majors analyze recent events in Portugal or Italy. Even literature majors can get practice in their subject area by explaining articles on Twain, Hemingway, Faulkner, etc., to the class. At present many foreign students seem to be interested in the U.S. Bicentennial and could be given assignments from an on-going series of historical articles dealing with America during the revolutionary period.

To sum up, the *Observer* is a very difficult "text" for a foreign student to read. However, it does have an advantage over a daily paper in that the news stories cover events of the past week, and many students who keep up with the latest happenings by listening to radio or watching TV are not coming to the content "cold." Encouraging the class to "listen and look" whenever they have a chance to come in contact with the American news media may take the fear away from students who view the *NO* as a far too difficult periodical to read. The ESOL teacher should use the *NO* pictures and captions, encourage class discussion centering around any item that would be of interest to a foreign student, take advantage of students with expertise in a certain field, and prepare the class for the shock of satire and criticism in American journalism. The reward for his hard work as news reporter, moderator, and interpreter comes the following semester when some students return and request a resubscription. A Monday-morning news briefing habit has set in.

REFERENCES

Blatchford, Charles. 1973. "Newspapers: Vehicles for Teaching ESOL with a Cultural Focus." *TESOL Quarterly*, 7, 145–151.

Fowles, Jib. 1970. "Ho Ho Ho: Cartoons in the Language Class." *TESOL Quarterly*, 4, 155–159.

PUBLIC SPEAKING IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

by Betty Ansin Smallwood
North East College of Arts and Science, Maiduguri, Nigeria

First judgements of a person are usually based on one's public presentation. This involves more than one's ability in pronunciation, intonation, grammatical competence and vocabulary control. The intangibles of poise and confidence and also organized self-expression are very important. Through regular, short public speeches in the ESOL classroom, the teacher can encourage and refine a learner's public speaking skills, which are a synthesis of numerous skills. Unfortunately, this essential and enjoyable area of oral English is often overlooked in favor of the more controlled, oral English exercises.

Public speaking integrates well as a regular activity in any intermediate or advanced ESOL class.

Public speaking is simply a 5-7 minute student talk on a freely-chosen subject, followed by a 3-5 minute question and answer period. I schedule this 10-12 minute exercise for the end of a lesson and try to have talks two times a week, so that each student has the opportunity to speak two or three times during the year. The students are required to choose and then research their topic, develop the idea into a brief but organized unit and finally present their talk with reference to their notes. At the beginning of the year, I spend one full lesson explaining the concepts involved in oral expression and providing them with a model talk. After the idea catches on, I seldom have a problem with volunteers.

Public speaking offers numerous benefits for the ESOL classroom. First, of all, it's fun and lively, both for the students and the teacher. It changes the traditional teacher-student interaction pattern to that of a student-student one; it provides variety to a skills-oriented class. It encourages communicative competence. In this way the student has a chance to express him/herself on something of importance or interest to him/her. (Common topics in Nigeria have included traditional customs, especially marriage and courtship, personal experiences and controversial political issues.) Also, the students get to know one another better and the teacher discovers the student's interest areas. All of this helps create a general sense of class cohesion and unity.

Public speaking allows the students to concentrate on a number of specific skills. Pronunciation, intonation, grammatical patterns and vocabulary usage are all given practice. In addition, student research and preparation require organizing and synthesizing skills, (Remember, they only have 5 minutes.) Also, the student audience is given the much needed practice in concise and grammatical question formation. This question and answer period provides the unusual classroom opportunity for student-student oral-aural comprehension.

Continued on page 10

And from the teacher's perspective, one has the chance to deal with a learner at his/her particular stage of transitional competence. I require all students to consult with me both before and after the talk. Beforehand, I can help them develop and organize their ideas and provide them with vocabulary; afterwards, I can correct specific errors in pronunciation, vocabulary usage and grammar. I have recently experimented with recording these talks. After the initial self-consciousness of being taped, the students seem to enjoy this aspect. Afterwards, they can actually hear themselves (and their mistakes). All of this is not as time consuming as it may at first sound; a teacher sees only two students per week.

In summary, short public speeches as a regular ESOL activity enliven the classroom while simultaneously providing individual practice and teacher attention for many essential, but under emphasized second language skills.

ATTLE CROSSING"

by Karen E. Czarnecki

Cultural orientation for the foreign student should always be of primary importance in the ESL classroom. Yet it is an area often neglected or shunted to the when-and-if-we-have-time portion of the instructor's teaching schedule. Frequently it is taught as an entity in itself, which is better than nothing, but with a little pre-planning, structural and/or lexical items and culture can be melded into a dynamic blend. A happy corollary of this is the fact that since the cultural items are of more immediacy to the student and interest in them is high, the perhaps less interesting accompanying grammatical structures have a better chance of being internalized: this may be due to their initial connection with the more engrossing cultural item.

The type and amount of traffic signs bear some scrutiny if we are to use them successfully in day-to-day class activities. There are two major classifications: the traditional signs which have printed instruction in English, and the new international signs which use pictures only. Of the former there are four sub-groups: road directionals ("One Way"), road instructionals ("Form Two Lanes"), parking instructionals ("2 Hour Metered Parking"), and traffic instructionals ("Cross on Walk Signal Only"). A typical person living in an urban area of the U.S. confronts on an average at least 30 signs daily, most of which are still non-pictorial. Some of these are confusing even to native Americans: for example, ("1 Hour Metered Parking/ 8 AM-4 PM/Tues., Wed., Fri., Sat./ 8 AM-4 PM & 6 PM-9 PM Mon. & Thurs."), and some marginally grammatical ("No Stopping or Standing"). Yet traffic signs are an indigneous part of the American scene and are expected to be adhered to no matter what. And we might reflect that it is preferable for the foreign student to learn at least some of the "no matter what's" in the security of his classroom rather than the hard way.

With the above in mind, let us look more closely at the utilization of traffic signs. Even a cursory glance at those most frequently encountered will reveal that many of them are in the present continuous tense. Possibilities either for initial presentation or reinforcement of grammatical understandings, in addition to survival skills, begin to emerge.

Hard-to-learn prepositions of place may take on a new interest in view of everyone's need to cope with "No Parking From Here to Corner," or similarly, "No Parking Between Signs." Building on this same item can lead to valuable speaking, listening, and coping skills as well. For example, the instructor can create and encourage the students to develop a conversation situation in which one student acts out the part of a policeman who has just found another student parked in a "No Parking" zone.

The enterprising instructor can utilize traffic sign diction for linguistic drill as well. For example, the final "ng" in "standing" and "stopping" is frequently mispronounced "k" by certain foreign language speakers and can be practiced for reduction of this error. Further, students can sharpen composition skills by helping each other write out the conversations they created around a specific traffic situation as suggested above.

Commonly used abbreviations such as "JCT" or "ALT" need exploration and expansion, as do elliptical forms found in such instructions as "Delayed Green Wait." The latter example might be suitable for a more advanced class which is also working with the same construction found in newspaper headlines. This level class will also find reinforcement for participle study in signs such as "Merging Traffic." A beginning class, working with time concepts, will find added stimulus in typical urban instructions for "2 Hour Parking/8 AM to 6 PM."

The activities outlined above by no means exhaust the possibilities inherent in this approach. Further, each locale offers traffic signs relevant to its own area (e.g. "Cattle Crossing") in addition to the standard ones. Such signs become even more valuable to the ESL class because of their specific relevance to the immediate environment and culture.

Probably the single most effective way of presenting such information to students is through the use of color slides snapped by the instructor. Close-ups are usually more effective, but an occasional shot of a busy intersection with a half dozen signs all vying for attention, brings the real-life situation into the classroom with dramatic immediacy. In short, possibilities for combining culture and content, even through traffic signs, are limitless.

IT WORKS!

by Darlene Larson

A NEW THEME ON AN OLD ANGLE

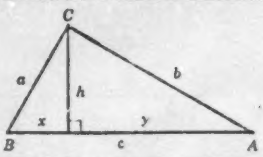
Have you ever had a group of students in your composition class who all too willingly informed you, "I can't write in Korean, either," or asked, "What do you mean by a topic sentence," or stated, "What do you mean by support? There's nothing more to say. What I've said is clear." Well, Mary Hines has . . . both at LaGuardia Community College and previously at New York University. She has found that the following technique makes sense—or gets through—to a number of these students, and is willing to share it with us because it works.

Mary Recommends the Socratic approach to eliciting from students the statement and proof of a geometric theorem. Once the proof has been established by students, it is an easy move to demonstrate that the order and support of their evidence is the simplest outline of a paragraph having a thesis sentence, support, and a conclusion. Thus, the demonstration of a theorem plus transitional expression and prose equals a well-organized, clear paragraph.

Mary provides the following proof and resulting paragraph as a model:

• • •

Theorem 67—The square of the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the legs.



Given: Right triangle ABC with legs a and b and hypotenuse c
Prove: $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$
Analysis: Use Theorem 66 to find the values of a^2 and b^2 and add the results.

STATEMENTS	REASONS
1. Right $\triangle ABC$ with legs a, b, and hypotenuse c	1. Given.
2. Draw the altitude from the vertex C to side c. Let x be the projection of a on c, and y the projection of b on c.	2. A perpendicular to a line can be constructed from a point outside the line.
3. Then $a^2 = cx$	3. The square of a leg of a right triangle is equal to the product of the hypotenuse and the projection of this leg on the hypotenuse.
4. $b^2 = cy$	4. Same as 3.
5. $a^2 + b^2 = cx + cy = c(x + y)$	5. If equal numbers are added to equal numbers, the sums are equal.
6. $x + y = c$	6. A set of points lying between the endpoints of a line segment divides the segment into a set of consecutive segments the sum of whose lengths equal the length of the given segment.
7. . . . $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$	7. Any number may be substituted for its equal in any expression.

The square of the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the legs. Given a right triangle, ABC, with legs a, b, and c, we draw the altitude from the vertex C to side c. Let x be the projection of a on c and y the projection of b on c because a perpendicular to a line can be constructed from a point outside the line. a^2 equals cx because the square of a leg of a right triangle is equal to the product of the hypotenuse and the projection of this leg on the hypotenuse. For the same reason, b^2 equals cy. If equal numbers are added to equal numbers, the sums are equal so $a^2 + b^2$ equals cx and cy equals $c(x + y)$. In addition, we can say $x + y$ equals c because a set of points lying between the endpoints of a line divides the segment into a set of consecutive segments the sum of whose lengths equals the length of the given segment. *Therefore, $a^2 + b^2$ equals c^2 because any number may be substituted for its equal in any expression.*

I would expect a good geometry book, perhaps the same one your students are using in math class, to provide other proofs and thus allow students practice in supplying transitional expressions and the prose needed to change the given to a paragraph. Of course, an advanced group could begin by developing their own proofs right from the start.

Thank you, Mary, for a lesson that could move from community college composition classes to ESL in content classes to bilingual education programs to English for Science and Technology programs and who knows where else?

Other lesson ideas that work will be welcomed by the Editor or by Darlene Larson, The American Language Institute, #1 Washington Square North, New York, N.Y. 10003.

IRA CONV.

Continued from page 4

should be sure to further question the child to determine if the error is a true error or merely one of usage.

Goodman, in discussing classroom implications, emphasized that standardized readings tests are often poor indicators of reading achievement for bilingual and dialect-speaking children. She suggested having the child retell the story as an alternative measure of comprehension. She also stated that English reading instruction should not be delayed until the child speaks English. She stressed that children should be immersed in interesting stories, stories that are fun to read. In selecting stories, the teacher should first ask, "Is the story relevant to the child?"

JOB OPENINGS

HEW/Fulbright-Hays

Elementary and secondary teachers, college instructors, and asst. professors for teacher exchange for 1977–8 school year. Basic requirements: US citizenship, bachelors degree, 3 yrs. tchg. exp. Must be currently employed. Write to Teacher Exchange Section, Division of Int. Ed., USOE, Washington, DC 20202.

Mexican-American Cultural Institute (Mexico City)

Permanent academic director for binational Center for TESOL program of 8,000 students and 65 full-time teachers to begin immediately. Must have at least an MA in TESOL and 5 yrs successful exp. in trng. and supervising TESOL teachers, directing academic program. Salary 18–20,000 per year. Send up-to-date resumé and 3 ref. to Director, Institute Mexicano Norteamerican, Hambaurgo 115, Mexico 6 DF Mexico. Phone (905) 525 6204.

University of Benghazi (Libyan Arab Republic)

Twenty English teachers (ESL, linguistics and appl. ling.). Write to Prof. Joseph Fikes, Faculty of Arts, Univ. of Benghazi, Libya.

IT WORKS!

by Darlene Larson

SOAP OPERA, MURDER MYSTERY, and HOME TOWN LORE

The *TESOL NEWSLETTER* is happy to have received contributions from members for our second column of practical lesson ideas. Several having to do with oral group work are outlined below.

Mary E. Sarawit of the Srinakharinwirot University in Pitsanulok, Thailand, writes of the success she and her colleagues have had with a lesson she calls "Soap Opera." She writes:

"To begin with, each of the three teachers chose a theme for their class and assigned 18 characters. For example, one class's theme was about life in a city hospital. Another was a family situation complicated by having five daughters, and the third about life in the country. A synopsis of the soap opera for a day was posted 2–3 days before. It listed the characters to appear and the general line of the story.

In addition to the soap opera itself, there were also an opening 5-minute news report, a 1-minute weather report, and advertisements. Particular students were assigned beforehand and it was up to them to prepare their own material.

The ½ hour presentation was divided as follows: 5-minute News, 1-minute Weather, 1-minute Advertisement, 10-minute Soap Opera (part 1), 1-minute Advertisement, 1-minute Advertisement, 10-minute Soap Opera (part 2)."

Mary's comments on the strengths of this lesson include the fact that the topics chosen can be current issues such as parent-child relations, the generation-gap, abortion, women's rights, drugs, etc. News articles concerning the topics were cut out and posted on a bulletin board for students to consult.

Just exactly what would be announced, reported and advertised was not plotted out and memorized in advance, just as the characters in the "Soap Opera" did not put their lines into a script before the presentation. As a result, students had to listen carefully to each other in order to determine what was being said and to respond in an appropriate manner.

Salvatore J. Sinatra has written to share a few ideas for use with groups. The first one he mentions is Robert Gibson's *Strip Story*, (TESOL-Q, Vol. 9, No. 2, June, 1975), probably the most *practical* article found in the *Quarterly* in the last several issues.

Additional contributions from Sinatra include an adaptation he has made from an original idea called *Murder Mystery*, devised by David and Frank Johnson, and found in a group dynamics text: *Joining Together*, Prentice-Hall, 1975, pp 121–122. Adapted for ESOL, Sinatra's challenge to each discussion group is to answer the questions:

Who was the killer?
Which weapon did he use?
What time did the murder occur?
Where was the victim killed?
Why was he killed?

Clues needed to solve the murder are prepared in advance by the teacher. Each clue is written on a separate card and distributed randomly to group members. The process involves assembly of all information, evaluation, and discussion so that the solution can be reached.

This adaptation includes the ingredient which is surely the key to the success of Gibson's *Strip Story* as well. That is, each member of the group is the sole possessor of one small piece of information which, in turn, is absolutely necessary to the completion of the task of putting the pieces together.

I'd like to encourage all of us to carry this successful technique into the students' wealth of experience and knowledge. All of our students arrive in the classroom as the sole possessors of lots of facts. We have the challenge of designing group tasks which will elicit from individuals the information that each one brings.

In university and adult classes, the students often come from a variety of home towns. Home towns usually contain town halls, town squares, historic places of interest. Groups might be given the task of preparing a report on town squares, municipal buildings and/or tourist attractions in the combined home towns of the members of the group. Each member would be responsible for providing the information about his home town. The report could be given orally on an assigned day, later written for display on a bulletin board. A list of guiding questions might get the group started . . . to be answered if pertinent, skipped if not. It might include questions on the size and location of the places, their history or origin, their present use and/or condition. More advanced groups might be assigned the task without any guiding questions to get them started.

One has to remember that in real life, every individual in every group does not arrive with a fact of his own which parallels the comparable facts of every other individual. Language texts have long contained bland paragraphs of information, or pages of pic-

Continued on page 20

THE SILENT WAY

Continued from page 13

and the student is forced, allowed, finally, to have the entire lesson time at his command, to speak?

As Dr. Gattegno puts it, the thing which he is striving to do is to build in the student, at the very beginning, a "confidence" that what he is saying is right. "The inner criterion of rightness . . . is the rock bottom on which the future acquisition will stand, increasing the sense of freedom that motivates learners and creates the joy which accompanies good performance."[2]

Blatchford states that his 'romance' with the Silent Way results from his recognition of the humaneness of the approach. He states that it has affected his approach to teacher training, resulting in his desire to provide, along with the methodology, the techniques of language teaching, "encouragement, self-reliance, and support"—the very things potential teachers will need "in the classroom they will be guiding."[1]

After participating in a Silent Way experience, it was apparent that certain basic facts stood out as important for the language teacher. *First,* the student is immediately and almost totally responsible for the language learning situation. That is, his mistakes provide the teacher with direction for the succeeding lessons, his successes determine how quickly he moves on to the next step, and the speaking is entirely his responsibility. *Second,* the language of the classroom is entirely, from the first instant, the target language. The students' language(s) are never used. His intelligence, his desire to learn, his compulsion to "try" the new words, sentences, patterns, language, is drawn upon instead. *Third,* after an initial anxiety, supported by long years of varying successes and failures in classrooms and especially foreign language classrooms, Silent Way students relax in the interaction between themselves as they learn to stimulate, encourage, and reinforce each other—respond to each other in a real, "thinking", meaningful way, rather than merely responding to the teacher. The "feel" for the language becomes part of the learning and with the responsibility for speaking comes not only the challenge to do so but the feeling that one *can.*

1. Charles Blatchford. "My Silent Way Experience—One Model for Training Teachers and Students" (Paper given at TESOL Convention, March 5, 1976, New York City).

2. Caleb Gattegno. "Some Remarks and Additions on 'The Silent Way: A Look at Language Teaching'", *Idiom,* 4:2, Winter 1974.

3. Caleb Gattegno. *Teaching Foreign Language in Schools the Silent Way.* New York: Educational Solutions, 1963.

4. John Haskell. "The Silent Way: A New Look at Language Teaching", *Idiom,* 4:1, Fall 1973.

5. Shelley Kuo. "Learning Chinese by the 'Silent Way' " (Mimeographed paper printed by Educational Solutions.)

SOAP OPERA, etc.

Continued from page 17

tures, which, when given a second look, fit perfectly clean, parallel language matrices of the sort that strike joy into the hearts of applied linguists. Rarely does the information possessed by a real, live class contain such symmetry. Go ahead and use it anyway. Venture into the real information of the students' experience. Express comparable facts with structural similarity if that's what they need. Teach them how to use *except for, however, on the other hand,* for those facts which differ. Some individuals might bring such differing backgrounds that their information wouldn't fit into the report. Perhaps such persons could play the role of group recorder and organizer of the written report, master of ceremonies of the oral report.

In other situations, individuals may become possessors of important bits of information as part of the task. One might ask a group to draw a floor plan of the first floor of the school library. The first step would be to send them off in pairs with measuring tapes and note pads, each pair to obtain the necessary data of a particular area of the floor.

Design a group task. Try it with your class. Write and tell us how it worked.

Other group activities have been outlined in "Practicum," in the MATSOL Newsletter, Vol. 4 No. 1, and in "Lessons that Work," in the IDIOM of NYS ESOL BEA, Vol. 6, No. 1.

TESOL NEWSLETTER

NON PROFIT ORG.
U. S. POSTAGE
PAID
Champaign, Ill.
Permit No. 16

Dr. John F. Haskell
Dept. of Linguistics
Northeastern Illinois University
Chicago, Illinois 60625

Reprinted from *Illinois TESOL Newsletter*, Sept. 1976.

USING MUSIC TO TEACH ENGLISH

by Lee Jaffe

"Music hath charms . . ." to liven up an English class when the drill may be getting a bit tedious. The use of familiar songs enables the teacher not only to enrich the class and to add some variety to the lesson but also to create a feeling of warmth and a sense of unity in the group.

There are several ways in which musical activities can be employed in the classroom. The first is as an introduction to a new pattern. For example, when working with prepositions, start the unit with the song "Put Your Finger in the Air." While singing the song, the children place their fingers on their noses, on their mouths, in their ears, etc. This type of song involves the body as it gives the class an opportunity to incorporate the new pattern kinetically. As they are happily singing, they are engaged in a learning experience that can be otherwise difficult and frustrating.

A second use of song is as reinforcement of a pattern previously taught. Using a picture as a visual clue, sing "Is he sleeping . . ." to the tune of "Frere Jaques." The child then supplies the appropriate answer to the song. Other pictures of activities are presented to expand the musical substitution drill.

Drills on vocabulary items can become very pleasant and satisfying activities when they are presented in song. A folksong, "There Was a Little Hole," teaches the parts of a tree by combining a chalk drawing with an echo song. As the song is sung, the teacher illustrates the words on the board. An echo song is one in which the leader sings one line and the class repeats the same line. Another song that lends itself to vocabulary building is "Old MacDonald."

Songs are excellent devices for pronunciation drills. Children respond quite eagerly to the nonsense syllable which are often used in song. Singing ditties such as "The Little Red Caboose" and "Shoo Fly" are much more enjoyable than the monotonous contrast of "shin and chin" in a minimal pair drill.

When selecting songs for the classroom, use those that have a refrain repeated several times. In this way the language learner will not feel overwhelmed by the words. Songs which have familiar and commonly used phrases are preferable. Nursery rhymes

Cont'd on page 14

From: *Music & ESL Workshop*—TESOL '76
Alice H. Osman and Laurie Wellman

Name of Song—Album

1) "Ruby Love" *Teaser and the Firecat*, Cat Stevens
A&M Records, Inc., California
2) "Father and Son" *Tea for the Tillerman*, Cat Stevens
A&M Records, Inc., California
3) "This Old Guitar" *Back Home Again*, John Denver
RCA, New York
4) "Whose Garden Was This?" *Whose Garden Was This*, John Denver
RCA, New York
5) "Old Folds" *Whose Garden Was This*, John Denver
RCA, New York
6) 'Blowin' in the Wind: *The Freewheelin' Bob Dylan*, Bob Dylan
Columbia, New York
7) "Suzanne" *Colors of the Day*, Judy Collins
Elektra, New York
8) "I Should Have Known Better" *A Hard Day's Night*, The Beatles
United Artists, New York
9) "If I Fell in Love With You" *A Hard Day's Night*, The Beatles
United Artists, New York
10) "The Fool on the Hill" *Magical Mystery Tour*, The Beatles
Capital, California
11) "A Day in the Life" *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band*, The Beatles
Capital, California
12) "Leaving on a Jet Plane" *Album 1700*, Peter, Paul and Mary
Warner Bros., California
13) "If I Had a Hammer" *Peter, Paul and Mary*, Peter Paul and Mary
Warner Bros., California
14) "Where Have All the Flowers Gone" *Peter, Paul and Mary*, Warner Bros., California
15) "Killing Me Softly with His Song" *Killing Me Softly*, Roberta Flack
Atlantic, New York

Selected for:

1) Contractions, questions
2) Spoken style-natural English, present tense, simple commands, conditionals
3) Past tense
4) Past tense, questions, modals (*must* used as supposition)
5) Present tense, present perfect questions
6) Question and answer, dialogue
7) Present tense (third person and other)
8) Models, past tense
9) Conditional tense, "if" clause and result
10) Present tense, negatives
11) Past tense
12) Present tense
13) "If" clause and result, repetition
14) "Wh" questions with present perfect tense, future "will"
15) Past tense, reported speech, present participle

Notes on popular song selection:

—Because of complex vocabulary, best used in more advanced classes
—Students are frequently self-motivated; they may bring a record into class and ask you to study it with them
—Encourages group discussions on topics of interest to the students
—Good test of student's comprehension
—Teaches vocabulary, culture, natural sentence patterns
—Student reviews frequently as he sings or hears the song outside the classroom
—Provides experience in using grammatical structures in an unself-conscious manner

Record albums specifically designed for teaching English:

1) *Hard to Learn That English as a Second Language Blues, & ESL Express* Laurie Wellman and Donald R. H. Byrd, Collier Macmillan International, Inc., New York (second album to be released Spring, 1976)
2) *Mister Monday and Other Songs for the Teaching of English, Goodbye Rainbow*, and *Sunday Afternoon*, The Solid British Hat Band
Longman Group Limited, New York and London

Notes on specially designed records:

—Each song generally deals with one isolated structure
—Vocabulary and story are carefully controlled
—Teaching suggestions are included with each album
—All words are pronounced carefully; songs are understandable

Cont'd on page 14

TESOL SOCIETY

Cont'd from page 8

ciety formed to wait until students themselves spontaneously organize one. Although a student organization obviously must be supported by the students, faculty members can do a great deal to initiate and encourage its formation.

2. Students do *not* usually like to attend planning meetings and discuss constitutional points. It is better to produce a constitution and bylaws through a selected group of willing students and faculty.

3. Most students are attracted by news of employment opportunities and social activities.

4. Students are generally terrified by the prospect of taking comprehensive oral or written exams. Any preparatory assistance is welcomed.

5. Charging dues is a must. Operating on a non-existent budget is next to impossible. Even tightly budgeted students do not usually mind paying dues if they see some real benefit coming from their membership.

6. Student government will often fund one half of the cost of a trip or project. If a student is participating in a conference or convention, the chances of receiving group travel funding are much better.

7. Money obtained from student government is a double benefit. Since funds go only to dues-paying members, the number of students who pay dues increases dramatically.

8. Most students appreciate any financial breaks they can get. Student registration fees at conventions are a definite attraction. Even when there is no official mention of special student rates, they are sometimes available when specially requested by a group.

9. Guest speakers can be excellent when the arrangements are handled properly. The society can help students by informing them of what to expect and by preparing them for what may be expected of them.

10. The administration will usually be very supportive (financially and otherwise) of projects and activities when it is demonstrated that they help improve the department program.

MUSIC WORKSHOP

Cont'd

Recent Hits

1) "I Write the Songs" by Barry Manilow
2) "50 Ways to Leave Your Lover" by Paul Simon
3) "Mahogany" (Do You Know . . .) by Diana Ross

1) Past tense, present terms, clear, easily understood, much repetition
2) Short catchy phrases—good for easy memorization, imperatives
3) Much repetition of question form beginning with *do*, slow, easily understood

USING MUSIC—

Cont'd from page 13

often contain words which are rather antiquated such as "Jack and Jill's" *fetch* and *crown*. These songs can be taught in another context and should not be taught in the language lesson. Careful attention must be given to the selection of songs utilizing standard English. Feel free to write parodies when the need arises.

Ah, at last, the rub, there are many teachers who feel that they cannot sing. In my experience, there have been very few who are performers, but there are many that can sing. It is such a joyous activity for all that it is a shame to deny your class and yourself the experience. If nothing else, records can become the instrument rather than your voice. To paraphrase a recent commercial, give music a try, "you'll like it."

Reprinted from the *ELI Monthly*, No. 8, January 1976

DO WE WANT VISUAL AIDS?

by Colin Ritchie
University of Petroleum
and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

In the language classroom there is virtually nothing as good as a picture for engaging the students' interest, focusing their attention and loosening their tongues. A picture, well designed or carefully chosen, can elicit the exact language the teacher wants to practice. His prompting need only be discreet, so he is in no danger of overmodelling the students' responses or merely giving them a transformation exercise. Not only does a picture effectively and economically elicit the language the teacher wants, but it also controls that language, particularly the vocabulary. Most important of all, the picture guarantees that the language being practiced is, at least minimally, related to a situation. A teacher, teaching his native language to foreign students, often forgets that the language he uses has a wealth of associations for him built up over years of usage whereas, for his students, it only has a few associations acquired in the classroom. Language, to be meaningful and memorable, must have strong and vivid associations. Anyone who has learnt a language by working abroad will bear this out. By means of pictures, rather than by contextualizing language through language, a direct link can be forged between language and situation and so some attempt can be made to overcome the deficiency of the language used in the classroom.

It is one of the unhappy results of the Audio-Lingual movement that, in emphasizing a language response to a linguistic stimulus, it has overlooked the fact that language is a response to a whole situation not always encountered through language. Students who have been trained to perform within the framework of a drill have not been helped to apply their skills flexibly and appropriately to different situations. In responding to a picture, with only a minimum of prompting from the teacher, the more advanced student has to use his own resources and, in this way, gets valuable practice at applying what he has learnt through drills and other manipulation exercises.

The emphasis on drilling has helped to promote the language laboratory, so suited to a Stimulus-Response approach. Laboratory material, however, is often restricted to drills and so neglects the enormous potential the equipment has for other kinds of material and other techniques. Similarly, visual media have been widely neglected. Most Audio-Lingual textbooks are not illustrated or use poor quality illustrations to decorate or elucidate the text rather than as a means of practicing language. The emphasis on the language laboratory has also, perhaps caused language teacher to neglect other equally sophisticated developments in educational technology often used by their colleagues in other subjects.

French courses, by contrast, have been audio-visual from the early days of the CREDIF material and a number of foreign language courses recently developed in Britain, such as the Nuffield material, are audio-visual. In these materials a film strip is used to contextualize the fairly lengthy presentation text and is later used for recall and other exercises. The British Council used this technique in their English course 'Meet the Parkers' and it has been used more recently by Michael Coles and Basil Lord in their course 'Access to English.' Pictures are also used as drill cues in some of these courses and are a strong feature of the Penguin course 'Success with English.' They are used extensively in the 'OPEAC Oral Drills' which have just been introduced into the ELI for use in the language laboratory. However, as the only relationship the pictures usually have with each other is that they are designed to elicit the same structure, they merely become a more elaborate way of cueing a substitution drill. The pictures should be related to one overall situation if they are to be of real value in giving drill language a semblance of reality.

This idea of a total situation is more in line with the illustrations to Kernel Lessons Intermediate, used by a number of classes in the ELI. Here a whole situation is summed up in a picture which, being presented to the students before the presentation text, enables them to respond to it and build up the situation from their own resources before studying the text. Unfortunately, the clumsy device of masking a text the students can study beforehand renders this method less effective and risks reducing the picture to a mere illustration of the text. This problem could easily be solved by putting the pictures on overhead projector transparencies with a heat copier. The verbal prompts printed on the same page could be added as an overlay. This would be a practical way of introducing the overhead projector and, once it was regularly available, might soon be used in other ways. The principle of using a slightly more complex picture to convey a whole situation could also be extended to provide material for disguised drilling. Practical difficulties in producing and projecting material are enormous and can really only be tackled by a Department as a whole. Realizing the potenztial of visual aids and working out thir application in detail to your own language program is critically important.

The Commission on Tests and Testing of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) is planning a one-day meeting in conjunction with the 1977 TESOL Convention in Miami (April 26–May 1). Papers on the topic of language testing—especially the testing of oral language proficiency—are now being solicited by the Commission. Anyone interested in reading a paper should write to: Randall L. Jones, Department of Modern Languages, Morrill Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14853.

TESOL ESTABLISHES MEMORIAL FUND

m
in
gu
au

Tl
ex
an
sir

Tl
an
Bu

Using Cloze to Select Reading Material

By John F. Haskell

How can I choose a story that is not too difficult for my students to read? How can I be sure that they will be able to read enough of it so that we can discuss it together?

Many teachers have a limited selection of books from which they can choose reading material. With first language speakers these books are usually selected for a certain grade level of student. But for second language learners we have no way of determining what the "level" of the student in reading is. We still have the same books. How can we use them most effectively? Can we SELECT materials from them that are both interesting and READABLE?

The Cloze Test is a simple way to determine whether or not reading material is too difficult for students to read—with success. Note that the key word here is SUCCESS. We should be trying to choose materials that will be appropriate for ALL of our students and easy enough to read so that we can provide growth in knowledge and greater skill in reading.

The Cloze testing device is easily made and easily scored.

1. The first step is to find a story that you think will be generally interesting to the students or that you want to use for some specific grammar or reading skills building exercises. . . hopefully interesting as well.

2. Take the first 200 or so words and delete every fifth word, putting a blank in its place. (For easy scoring fifty blanks is most easily converted to a percentage score, but it is not necessary to have that may blanks). This amount can be easily typed or written on one side of a single sheet of paper and duplicated.

3. Give only this much of the selected passage to your students to read. Ask them to fill in the blanks as they read by guessing what should be there. You may want to have numbered the blanks for easier scoring, also. This will allow you to re-use the test sheets if you have students write the words on a separate numbered piece of paper.

Students should be given as much time as possible though it will take very little time as they become familiar with the Cloze procedure. They are asked to fill in each blank with a sin-

Continued on Next Page

Continued from Page 15

gle word only (though contractions are permissible). The student can read and reread the passage as many times as he needs and in fact, will find it necessary to do so.

4. When the students are finished you are ready to score the papers.

Remember—your are NOT grading students and the students should be told that. You are trying to determine whether or not all the students in your class will have success in reading the whole story.

The cloze passage may also be used to initiate a motivating-learner experience by discussing it with the students after they have finished filling in the blanks. This should be done even though you may find, after scoring the papers, that the passage is too difficult to use any further. Both content and especially grammar choices can be discussed with the students.

The simplest and most effective scoring procedure is to match each student's response with the list of words you deleted. Accept ONLY those words, even though you may find synonyms or other appropriate words being used by the students. Synonyms and "other" words will tell you much about the individual student's knowledge of English but *will not be necessary* for you to decide whether the reading election is appropriate for the WHOLE CLASS. For this decision you will find the more objective general score more suitable.

5. If you have fifty blanks, the conversion to percentage scores will be easy—multiply by two. If not, changing the score to percentage figures will take a little more time.

Once you have these scores for the whole class you will be able to determine the readability of the materials—for that class.

Remember that in general, second language students will not be able to fill in accurately more than sixty or seventy percent of the blanks of even easy reading material. They should be told this from the beginning. Both the teacher and the student should be aware that (a) the student will not always pick the original word and yet may have understood correctly what he is reading. And (b), the student will be able to read and understand a good deal of the passage even though he may not know all the words—we all do it occasionally in our reading.

If students get above 53 per cent they can probably read the story on their own. The teacher will know that this is a story which can be assigned as extra reading or to be read at home.

If the students get below 43 per cent then the material is too difficult for them to read—even with the help of the teacher in the classroom. It will indicate that there are just too many grammatical and lexical roadblocks in the way of the student for him to be able to read the story successfully and without frustration.

What the teacher is looking for is a set of scores for ALL students in the class that will be above 43 per cent (and for the most part below 53 per cent).

An that's it! If a large number of students are below 43 per cent—DON'T use the story. . . at least not with those students. Try again with another selection instead. If it seems impossible to find a story to use for the whole class from the material (books) you have then you will know that you must do one of two things. . . or both. You must find some reading material that is more appropriate for your students, that you can use with them in the classroom, that they will have success with, and that will take them ahead that one little step in grammar knowledge and reading skill, and towards new experience or information. You may also find that it is time to consider breaking up your classroom into two or more reading groups.

These scoring areas, frustrational (below 43 percent), instructional (43 to 53 percent) and independent reading (above 53 percent), are general areas and the teacher may find that they need to be adjusted somewhat. They are not absolute percentages. But the cloze procedure works, it will tell you a lot about your reading material.

Try it! Experiment! Use it!

service.

At this stage of American Education, when so many of the goals that we have struggled so long for are again being threatened, it would indeed be ironic to find out that much we saw as change was not change at all. This is a good time to take a look at what bilingual education should be. What is needed are bilingual programs not only in name but also in substance.

Vol II NO.5 Nov-Dec. 1976

TESTING ADULT IMMIGRANTS IN OPEN ENROLLMENT PROGRAMS

by Donna Ilyin
Alemany Community College Center

Open enrollment classes or any classes where student attendance is erratic or transient pose many specific problems. The teacher is constantly faced with presenting, reviewing, and testing at the same time. Often a teacher may have three or four different levels of proficiency in the same class. In adult ESL classes for immigrants, the teacher may also be responsible for the placement of students and for accountability which in ESL classes means student progress in attaining ESL proficiency. The constant flux of new arrivals all during a class period into these multilevel classes with no common denominator of interest, no common language background, and no common level of education in students' own language or educational system challenges and frustrates the teacher. Both teaching and testing open enrollment classes are difficult.

Placement and Accountability

Short time saving tests are helpful in placing students into classes or in deciding what materials may be suitable for a student. (See ESCOBAR or ROBSON). Tests can show students their ESL level of proficiency and show that they are progressing in general English proficiency.

Teachers can also encourage students to assess their own language growth by giving lists of questions students answer about their own language abilities. (For beginning students, these lists can be translated into students' languages.) Given when students enter a course of instruction and again when the course is completed, the student self diagnostic survey usually reflects language growth and can also show where each student feels more work is needed.

Teacher made tests and other devices such as criterion referenced charts, pre and post test tape cassettes, and cummulative record folders containing class work, text tests, cloze tests and dictations also help show students who attend classes regularly that they are progressing.

Teaching Oneself

With the many challenges of open enrollment teaching in adult ESL classes, I would like to provide another challenge. Why not teach ourselves more about ESL assessment and then share what we learn? More and more teachers are adapting EFL and native speaker materials and methods for group work as well as for individualized instruction. With only a little more effort, teachers can learn to make tests and devise ways to add student self checking devices for each unit or objective. (See BESL Reporter; HARRIS; VALETTE; etc. and recent papers on testing).

Teaching and Testing at the Same Time

What interests me even more than routine testing of units of work, or specific skill areas is collecting ways of teaching and testing at the same time. Dr. Alice C. Pack from Brigham Young University in Hawaii demonstrated such a technique in her presentation at the tenth annual TESOL convention in New York City, 1976: Learning English Prepositions, Pronouns and Verbs through Participation in Peer Dyads.

I have also been working with some ideas of my own and adapting other peoples ideas in order to present, review, practice and test at the same time. In addition to specific skill areas, I find it is even more interesting and easier to present, review, practice and test in contextual situations. I believe students perform better when the material is interesting and follows a theme or story line. I hope that other teachers will join me in discovering, developing, creating and adapting ways to teach and test students at the same time. Guess Tests, Picture Dictation Teaching Tests, Dictation/Reading Tests, Picture Created Cloze Tests and Dictation Cloze Reading Tests are some techniques that have helped me.

Guess Tests—specific skill areas (vocabulary, numbers, time, etc.)

Preparation:

—Make flash cards or use regular drill pictures, want ads, advertisements, tapes, whatever.
—Shuffle or mix each so that the teacher does not know what the student sees or hears.

Number lesson example:

1. Teacher/student technique
—put some numbers on flash cards eg. 6, 60, 16, $.05, $.50, $5, 1, 423; etc. (Use 4 x 6 cards for small classes and put only one number on each card.)
—shuffle the cards
—show a volunteer student a number that you cannot see. (Numbers are toward students)
—tell the volunteer student to read the number
—repeat what student says and write on board or transparency the students exact words.
—ask the class if the number on the board is the same as on the card. (If not, class corrects)
—repeat above until student fails two or three times or until the volunteer passes the number test successfully.
—record when each student passes your informal test.
(At this point the number lesson is an informal test for the volunteer student, a review for others and a presentation for newly arrived students. It also provides a means to check the volunteer's oral ability since the teacher does not know what is going to be read or said. The student has to really communicate clearly or the result will not be the same on the board as on the card.)

2. Student/student technique
When one or more students are successful with all the cards:
—ask for other volunteers to go to the board to write the numbers.
—shuffle the cards again and show only to students who were successful in step 1 above.
—ask students who demonstrated their success in step 1 to read the numbers to students at the board.
—ask students at the board to write the numbers. (Later those students can assume reader-speaker roles when they feel successful)
—Tell students at their seats to practice writing the numbers the reader-speaker students are saying. (Again be sure to shuffle the cards and show a card only to the reader-speaker students).
—next show the number card just read to the students at the board and ask each to correct his number if it is not the same. (Students in their seats can also correct their numbers.)
—record when students are successful.

Guess Tests—context or situation

Instead of testing numbers in isolation as described above, choose one of the survival content areas necessary for a student here in the United States. For example banking and business are two areas most people need to understand when working or conducting business.

Preparation:

—make a number of checks filling out numbers, names, dates, amounts, etc. (Use blank checks or large flash cards made into checks, or a ditto with a number of checks each designated by

a cue. eg. check x, check xx, check xxx)
—Shuffle the checks. (If using dittos, make flash cards each with a cue designation on each card eg. x, xx, or xxx, etc.)
—make a large replica of a blank check on the board or use a transparency of a blank check.

Teacher/student technique

—tell students to look at the check you are holding, but that you can not see. (If you are using flash card cues, tell the students to find the check your card refers to. eg. If the students see XX on your flash card, they find check XX on the ditto sheet.)
—ask a volunteer student (one ready for testing) to tell you the amount of the check.
—repeat what student says and then write the number in the proper place on your blank check. Write a student's exact words.
—ask the class if the number on the board is the same as on the check referred to. (If not, class corrects). Only the numbers can be written, or both the numbers and the number words on the check.
—erase the amount on your blank check repeat with more cards until student fails two or three times or until the volunteer passes the number test successfully.
—record when a student is successful.

Student/student technique

—ask for volunteer students to go to the board and make replica's of blank checks.
—ask for volunteers to write the amounts they will hear. (If using a tranparency, only one student can be tested at a time).
—distribute a check or a flash card referring to a check on a ditto to students who have successfully completed step 1.
—tell a student at the board to ask one of the students with a check or flash card for the amount of the check he has. eg. "Jose, How much is your check?" or "Chi Wai, What is the amount of the check you have?" (Be sure that students who are writing the numbers do not see the check of the students who are reading the amounts.)
—tell all of the students at the board or those at their seats who are practicing to write what the reader/student says. (More advanced or quicker writers can write the number words too)
—keep a tally for students who answered correctly.
—next tell student/reader to show the check he has read.
—ask writers to correct their answers.
—point to a correct answer at the board.
—continue asking other individual board students to ask another student with a check for the amount of each check. (Always be sure that students writing the numbers do not see the check or cues, copy from other students or get prompting help.)

The check writing technique can be expanded to include questions such as: "Who wrote the check?; When did he/she write it? (a good way to practice common men's and women's names and spellings); Who will get the money?; or (for cancelled checks) Who got the money?, etc.

Very often students help each other with the answers and the teacher walks around answering questions and checking the work of students who are just practicing.

When using this dictation-teaching technique, some students can be formally tested in spite of the bedlam that may seem to have occurred. Have a specific area in the room for testing where volunteers go. The teacher proctors as the questions are asked, the answers given and dictation written. The rule: there is no testing if others are contributing to the effort.

Picture Dictation Teaching Tests

Situational pictures present opportunities to teach, review and test at the same time.

Materials needed:
—a large (preferably colored) story provoking picture in a context of interest and student need. (Transparency can be used)
—a regular deck of playing cards (52)
—blank dittos

Preparation:
—add a clock to a picture.
—tell students to name the people in the picture.
—draw out a story about the picture from the students.
—write the story on the board or ask an advanced student to write the story (The teacher quickly corrects errors after recording students skill at dictation.
—ask another student to copy the story on a ditto. (Teacher corrects errors later and reproduces for a class reading lesson.)
—draw out questions that can be asked about the story just created.
—write those questions on the board or have an advanced student write the questions. (Correct any errors quickly after recording students dictation efforts.)
—number the ten best questions students can ask and answer about the story.
—instruct an advanced student to write the ten best questions on a ditto. (Teacher corrects errors later and reproduces for a reading comprehension lesson).
—obtain an ordinary deck of cards (52).

1. Teacher/student technique
—shuffle the 52 cards.
—hold the cards with the numbers, or face cards toward the students. Don't look at them.
—tell students that each time an ace appears the students must ask you the 1st of the ten questions they have just chosen about the story they have just created. If a two of any suit appears, they ask question number 2. (They never tell you the number and you do not see the card. Since there are four suits, any number can be asked four times)
—tell students if a face card appears they must ask you a question about yourself. . . or about the class or the room, but not about the story. (Suitable types of questions might be elicited and put on the board before beginning.)
—do a few examples by showing a card to the class. Students ask the question cued. Teacher responds with the answer.

2. Student/student oral technique
—ask for a volunteer to answer questions.
—select about 15 or 20 cards. (be sure to have all 10 questions represented, a few repeats and a few face cards. Do not let volunteer student see the playing card.)
—give a playing card to students who understand the system.
—ask a student with a playing card to ask the volunteer the question cued by his card. (Do not let answering student see cue card.)
—record volunteer student's success in answering the question. Class corrects if answer is wrong.

3. Student/student written technique
—replace repeated numbers with different numbers (eg. If you have two fives, keep one five and add an extra three)
—shuffle cards again.
—ask for volunteers to go to the board to write answers. (Other students practice in their seats)
—give a playing card to students who understand the system.
—ask a student with a playing card to ask the question cued by her card.
—tell writing students (at the board or seats) to write a natural answer to the question. (Those who are faster or more advanced can write a longer more complete answer under the natural answer.
—A natural answer to the question: "Where are Mr. and Mrs. Anderson?" is *in the bank.* A complete sentence

answer is *They are in the bank.* or *They have just gone to the bank to cash Mr. Anderson's check.* etc.)

Dictation Reading Tests. Created stories from a situational picture or stories in class room materials can be used as a dictation test for some and a reading comprehension lesson for others. (1) Give lined paper to students taking the dictation test (group 1). (2) Give typed copies of the story to those desiring to relate sound to symbol (group 2). (3) Give some students the typed copy of the story with comprehension questions to answer (group 3). (4) Instruct students in the first two groups to listen as the story is read. (Students in group three, read the story and answer the questions). (5) Then read the story aloud once. (6) Tell students taking the dictation test (group 1) that the story will be read line by line and that they will write. (7) Instruct those in group two to follow along as the story is read. (8) Read the story a line at a time. Repeat each sentence only two times. Read in a natural conversational manner pausing after phrase groups. (9) At the end, read the story completely one more time. (10) Collect the dictation from students in group 1 using it as a test. Give one point for each correct word. If desired, spelling and punctuation can also be scored, but make separate categories.

Collect reading comprehension answers from group 3.

Picture Created Cloze Tests. Another variation of the created picture story (or for any reading materials) is to use the stories as originally written and make a cloze test for the lesson or a cloze dictation test. (When material has been used before as a reading or dictation lesson, paraphrase the story. Use slightly different structures and vocabulary still keeping in the contraints of the proficiency level . . . and keeping the essential meaning of the original story)

Making the clozes (1) delete every 7th word leaving the 1st and last sentences intact. (2) Number the blanks. Three prefered rules for cloze tests using class created or teacher made stories or when paraphrasing are:

1. Use natural easy flowing sentences within students proficiency level and on a topic students have studied.

2. Select blanks that are different words if for some reason the same pronouns and articles seem to appear as the 7th word. Rewrite the story adding an adjective or a noun phrase or two to avoid this.

3. Avoid using difficult parts of structure elements or words where the context does not make the blank clear. (Before giving students the test, try it out on some native speakers. If they can't fill in the blanks, rewrite the story so that the blanks will be more easily done.)

Directions to students taking the cloze:

1. Read the whole story.

2. Then go back and fill in the blank the word you think is missing. Use a pencil, For example:

Mr. and Mrs. Anderson went to ——1—— a check at the bank. They ——2—— going to buy some clothes.

3. Use only one word for each blank.

4. Words like *"don't"*, *"can't"*, *"he's"*, and *"you're"* can be used to fill a blank.

Their son needs shoes, but he ——3—— need any pants.

5. Try to fill every blank.

Dictation Cloze Reading Test

Alternate directions to students taking the dictation cloze test are the same except for 2. which is changed as follows:

2. Then listen as I read the story. Fill in the blanks with the word, that I read.

Administering the cloze or the cloze dictation:

Many ways of giving and scoring this type of test are possible. One way to give the test to some and yet use it as a practice device for others is to give two copies of the deleted reading pages with a carbon between to those desiring to take it as a test. Instruct them to turn in the original when the test is completed.

Then if using the dictated cloze, get volunteers to read the words that were read for the blanks. If using the picture created cloze, get volunteers to tell the words they selected for each blank. Be certain that students know which words are acceptable or not. Draw out reasons from the students.

Teacher/student sets of tests.

At this point Teacher-student sets of tests (similar to those developed by Alice C. Pack) could be utilized. After the discussion, hand out teacher sets of the cloze with the correct word typed or written in the blank in another color if possible or at least put in a box. Alternate acceptable words could also appear in a vertical line in the box.

Students can correct their work.

Later these sets could be used for review or testing in the peer, dyad technique developed by Dr. Pack.

TESTING RESOURCE LIST
for Adult Open Enrollment Programs

For a quick easy to read report:

—"Focus on Testing." *BESL Reporter* Vol I No. 2, September 1975. Bilingual/E.S.L. Center, 100 Franklin Street, New Holland, Pennsylvania.

Two recent testing bibliographies

—Escobar, Joanna Sculley and John Daugherty—1976. *A Teacher's Planning Handbook for Developing the ESL/ABE Instructional Program.* Illinois ESL/ABE Service Center, 500 S. Dwyer Avenue, Arlington Heights, Illinois 60005.

—Robson, Barbara and Sutherland, Kenton—1975. *Selected Annotated Bibliography for Teaching English to Speakers of Vietnamese.* Arlington, Virginia 22209.

A quick oral placement test:

—Kunz, Linda et al. "The John Test" An oral production test developed in New York City for adults. For free copies write to: Jean Bodman, AERC, Jersey City State College, Jersey City, New Jersey 07305.

Four books helpful to teachers making their own tests:

—Burt, Marina K. and Kirparsky, Carol —1972. *The Gooficon,* a repair manual for English. (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House).

—Harris, David P.—1969. *Testing English as a Second Language.* (New York. McGraw Hill).

—Nilsen, Don L. F. and Nilsen, Alleen Pace—1971. *Pronunciation Contrasts in English* (New York: Regents).

—Valette, Rebecca—1967. *Modern Language Testing, a Handbook.* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.).

Two recent collections of papers on testing:

—Jones, Randall L. and Spolsky, Bernard—1975. *Testing Language Proficiecny.* (Arlington, Virginia, Center for Applied Linguistics).

—Palmer, Leslie and Spolsky, Bernard—1975. *Papers on Language Testing 1967–1974.* Washington, D.C., Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Some other testing papers:

—Aitken, Kenneth G.—1976. "Discrete Structure Point Testing Problems and Alternatives." *TESL Reporter,* Vol. 9, No. 4. Laie, Hawaii, Brigham Young University.

—Haskell, John—1975. "Putting Cloze into the Classroom." *English Record,* Vol. 26, No. 2, Spring. Oneonta, NY 13820.

—Herbert, Charles H.—1975. "Language Diagnosis and Assessment Testing Techniques and a Program for Natural Language Development." Paper delivered at TESOL Convention, Los Angeles, California.

—Ilyin, Donna—1975. "What Grade is Dr. Chan in?" *TESL Reporter,* Vol. 8, No. 4. Box 157, Laie, Hawaii; Brigham Young University.

—Jonz, Jon—1976. "Improving on the Basic Egg—the M-C Cloze." For copies write to Jonz at Lancaster-Lebanon Intermediate Unit, 1110 Enterprise Road, East Petersburg, PA 17520.

—Olsen, Judy E. Winn-Bell—1976. "Adapting an Oral Interview to a Mass Listening Test." Paper presented at the tenth annual TESOL Convention. For copies write to: Judy Olsen at Alemany Community College Center, 750 Eddy Street, San Francisco, CA 94109.